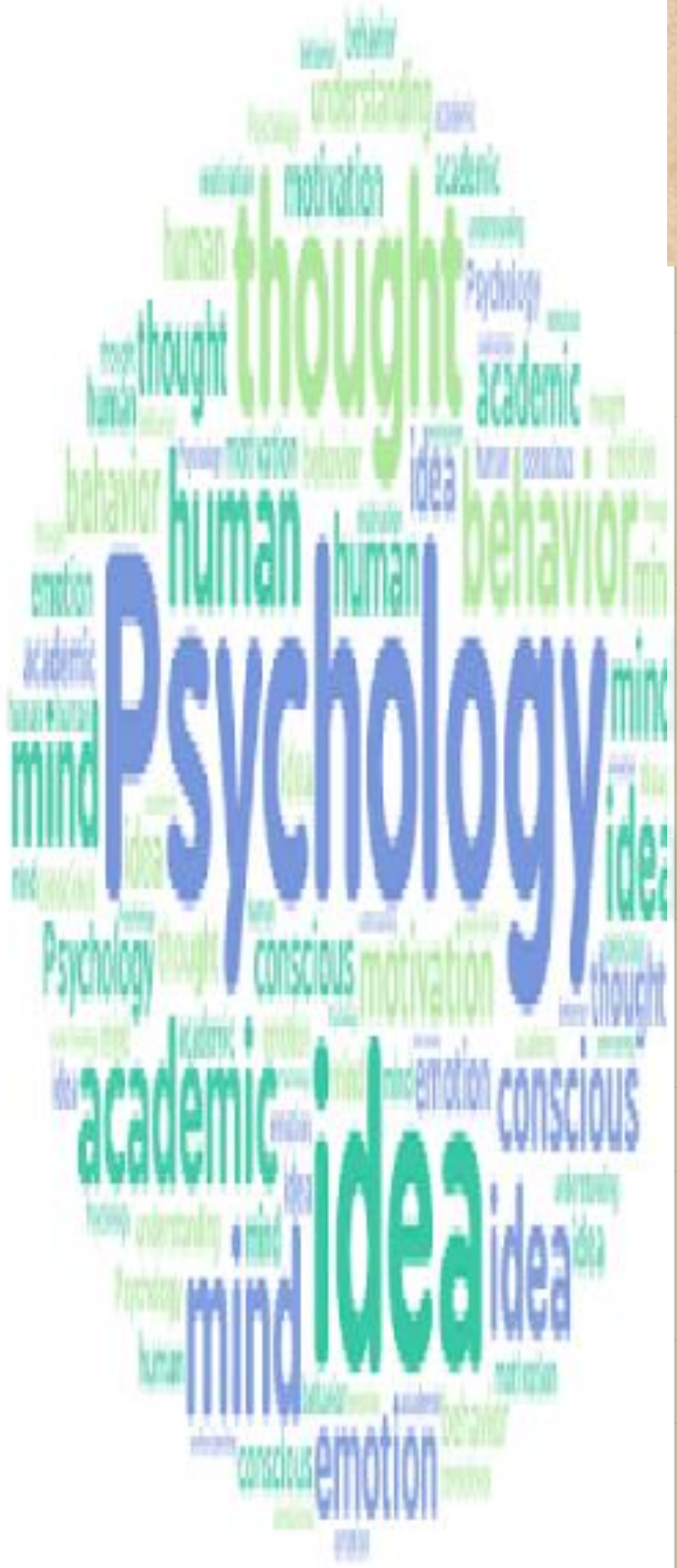
UNIT-8 Social Psychology



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What is Nature, scope and history of social psychology?

Nature, scope and history of social psychology

The last century witnessed the creation of new sciences and specialised branches for specific needs together with the technological developments that have changed the scenario of education and knowledge. New social realities generated new problems. Social psychology came into existence at the time when the world was undergoing a great upheaval. A significant number of facts in the fields of linguistics, anthropology, ethnography and archaeology needed interpretation for various facts.

This need manifested itself in the development of two sciences regarded as the parents of social psychology: psychology and sociology. Societies manifest themselves through the activities of people, through communication and interaction and in turn shape the behaviour of individuals.

The study of social psychology enable us to understand the dynamics of human behaviour in social situations and what effects do these situations exert on individuals and in what ways are these situations get changed by the behaviour of the individuals. Social psychology intrudes social life by providing practical recommendations in various areas.

The practical needs of the discipline have been increased by the increased demand for efficient management in the areas of industry, education, health, mass communication system, struggle against anti-social behaviour, public services and sports etc. In this unit we will discuss the concept and definition of social psychology, its background and developments and its relation to other social sciences. Floyd Allport

(1924) has defined social psychology as “the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups and culture”.

A similar definition by Gordon W. Allport (1968) states that social psychology is a discipline “that attempts to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of an individual are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others.” The above definitions include the elements: scientific study, experience and behaviour, individual, group and culture that throw light upon the nature of the discipline. These elements are elaborated below:

Social Psychology is Scientific in Nature Social psychology is scientific in its approach to the range of topics it deals. One may find many common sense explanations and literary works that tell us about interpersonal relations, love, jealousy, aggression, altruism (helping behaviour) and the roles of individuals in groups. The difference lies in the approach that a social psychologist adopts. It adopts scientific methods which we will discuss later but in all the methods a three step basic process has been employed (McDavid and Harari, 1994):

i) The collection of carefully made observations. Careful observation requires gathering of information about issues and processes of interest, plus an attitude of scepticism.

ii) The ordered integration of these observations and the statement of general principles.

iii) The utilisation of these general principles to predict future observations. As an example we can take this statement, “When people try to dismiss those who ask the big public questions on being emotional, it is a strategy to avoid debate.”1 How do we proceed to check the validity of the statement? First, we have to see the big

national or international issues, big in the sense they raise problems of wider concern, like the displacement of inhabitants of a particular place due to some projects. After this we will have to select a representative sample population and get their opinions.

SCOPE OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY Social psychology attempts to understand the relationship between minds, groups, and behaviors in three general ways:

1) It tries to see how the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of other(s). This includes social perception, social interaction, and the many kinds of social influence (like trust, power, and persuasion). It deals with questions like:

How do small group dynamics impact cognition and emotional states? How do social groups control or contribute to behaviour, emotion, or attitudes of the individual members? How does the group impact the individual? How does the individual operate within the social group? It tries to understand the influence that individual perceptions and behaviours have upon the behaviour of groups. How does persuasion work to change group behaviour, emotion or attitudes?

2) Second, it tries to understand the influence that individual perceptions and behaviours have upon the behaviour of groups. This includes looking at things like group productivity in the workplace and group decision making. It looks at questions like: What are the reasons behind conformity, diversity, and deviance?

3) Third, and finally, social psychology tries to understand groups themselves as behavioural entities, and the relationships and influences that one group has upon another group. It asks questions like: What makes some groups hostile to one another, and others neutral or civil?

Do groups behave in a different way than an individual outside the group? In European textbooks there is also fourth level called the "ideological" level. It studies the societal forces that influence the human psyche.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS: THE EMERGENCE OF MODERN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

To understand the contribution of social psychology and what is distinct about it, we need to know its historical origins. The formation of pre-conditions of social psychology is as a whole the same as the development of any other scientific discipline.

The socio-psychological ideas originally took shape within the realm of philosophy and then gradually branched off from the system of psychological knowledge.

First we will briefly discuss the social thought before the advent of social science and then discuss the second stage of the development of social psychology which is deemed to be "more productive.

Social Thought Before the Advent of Social Science

Two earlier forms of social thought over the centuries are Platonic and Aristotelian. Platonic thought emphasised the primacy of state over the individual who had to be educated to become truly social.

Aristotelian thought states that human being is social by nature and nature can be trusted to enable individuals to live together and to enter personal relationships from which families, tribes and ultimately the state will naturally develop.

In modern times these two traditions of social thought have been known as socio centred approach and individual centred approach. Socio centred approach emphasises the determining function of social

structures (systems, institutions and groups) for individual experience and behaviour. According to the individual centred approach social systems are said to be explicable in terms of individual processes and functions. For Hegel (1970-1831),

the German philosopher, the state is not only the ultimate form of society but the incarnation of the objective social mind of which individual minds are active participants. The notion of Group Mind derived from Hegel's supra-individual nature. Social psychology from its beginning has been defined as the scientific study of the individual in the social context. Individualism has been an inherent property of the discipline. Individualistic doctrine says that all the explanations of individual social phenomena are to be rejected unless they are expressed in terms of individual. Individualism in psychology has been characterised and criticised for the self centred denial of the other. Individualism has appeared in two forms in sociological thought: Hedonism: People act in order to secure and maintain pleasure and to avoid and reduce pain.

Utilitarianism: The doctrine that advocates the pursuit of the greatest happiness of the greatest number. For most modern theories of conditioning and of motivation, the underlying ideas of individual satisfaction (reinforcement, reward, reduction of stress, of dissonance, uncertainty) are variations of the pleasure or utility principle. Utility and satisfaction are important constructs involved in many social psychological theories.

From Machiavelli (1513) and Thomas Hobbes (1651) the concept of power and its role in social relationships returned in social psychology. The concept of social power (social influence) found its proper frame of reference in the field theory and social exchange theory. In Lewinian field theory 'power' became the term for the potential to influence

others while control and influence refer to the power of action. Research areas where power has been studied are: aggression, conformity to group pressure and obedience to authority, and power in language.

Modern social psychology was also influenced by the developments in the nineteenth century in two major areas: sociology and theory of evolution. We will discuss these influences later under the titles: social psychology and other disciplines and the influence of evolutionary theory will be discussed in current trends in social psychology.

What is Traditional theoretical perspectives: Field theory, Cognitive Dissonance, Sociobiology, Psychodynamic Approaches, Social Cognition?

Traditional theoretical perspectives: Field theory

At the outset I must point out that field can mean two things: a region of space (such as psychological, social, cultural, or linguistic spaces) within which things are located as a function of space-time coordinates or the area in which a force operates. The latter presupposes the former and adds to it the notion of forces spread continuously throughout the region.

I will call the former view a spatial theory and the latter a field theory. It is helpful to keep this distinction in mind when considering psychological and social science perspectives, approaches, and

theories, for what is called a field is often meant as a particular space, as in Arthur Bentley's or in Pitirim Sorokin's work,

In this and in subsequent chapters, I will limit my survey to self-professed field theories of humankind, or such applications, or studies clearly involving a field perspective. This will eliminate from consideration many spatial theories, such as those of Osgood, Sorokin, Parsons,

Cattell, and Bentley, or theories of social gravity and of social distance, but not those spatial theories explicitly meant by their authors to be field theories, such as Quincy Wright's.

Perhaps we can most appropriately begin this discussion with psychological fields, particularly as proposed in Gestalt theory, and move to Kurt Lewin's work, with which field theory has become most associated for social scientists, and then to his successors. Subsequently, I will consider sociocultural fields and Ushenko's field of power.

This review is not a comprehensive survey, as such[1] My purpose is to exemplify the use of "field" in our attempts to understand ourselves, particularly as these attempts create insight into the nature of our intentional field and its eventual bearing on violence and war. A picture is enhanced and its central figures better seen against a well-constructed background. These chapters in Part I of The Dynamic Psychological Field comprise such a background.

Field theory in the social sciences has become indelibly associated with Kurt Lewin's name. For this reason and because Lewin's work stands in ancestral line to the field orientationof this book, The Dynamic Psychological Field, and to that of subsequent field theorists, I will devote some time to his ideas.

As a young man in Germany, Lewin was attracted to Gestalt psychology, perhaps partly due to his experiences as a soldier in World War I and his observations on how battlefield involvement affects perception,

and perhaps partly because of his quantitative experiments and consequent disillusionment with the classic theory of association. Soon after the war, Lewin accepted an appointment at the Psychological Institute, University of Berlin, where the Gestaltists, Köhler and Wertheimer (who was director), were accomplishing their famous research.

He remained there until Hitler's assumption of power caused Lewin (a Jew) to seek and accept a position in the United States. By then, through his students, research, and writings, he had developed a considerable reputation, and in his new homeland he continued to enhance it. By the time of his death in 1947, some psychologists were convinced that Lewin's name should rank with Freud's among those contributing the most to contemporary psychology.

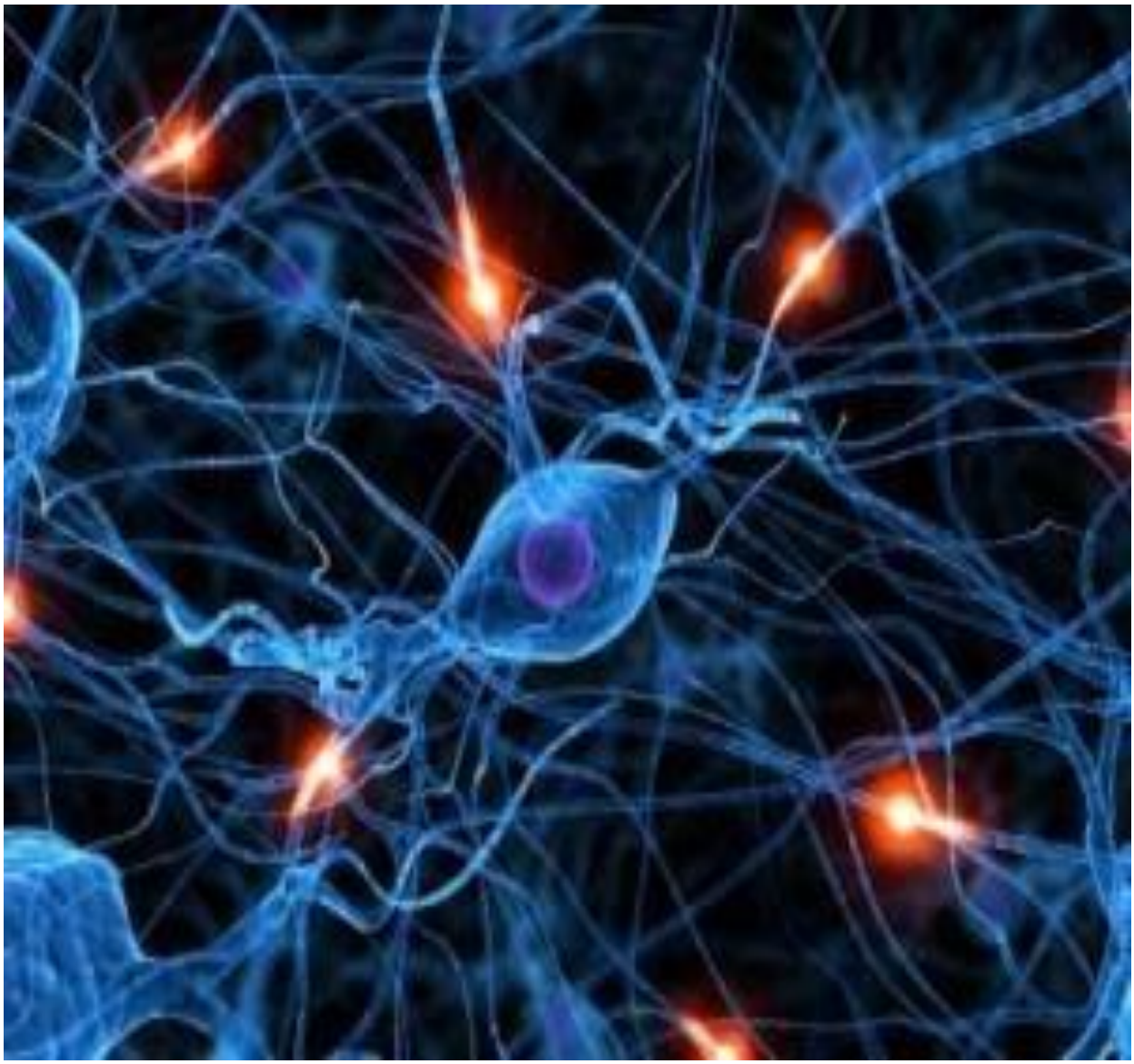
Cognitive Dissonance

Cognitive Dissonance Theory Definition

Introduced by Leon Festinger in 1957—and since that time debated, refined, and debated again by psychologists—cognitive dissonance is defined as the aversive state of arousal that occurs when a person holds two or more cognitions that are inconsistent with each other. The concept of dissonance was once enormously controversial, but its support through five decades of research has made it one of the most widely accepted concepts in social psychology.

Cognitive dissonance theory can explain a variety of ordinary and extraordinary events in our social lives. Indeed, for a concept to have as

long and active a “shelf life” as dissonance, it must either help us see our social world differently, help us to understand why certain phenomena occur, or allow us to make (and confirm) interesting and nonobvious predictions about human nature. The theory of cognitive dissonance has accomplished all three.



To break the definition into its components, let us consider first what is meant by inconsistent cognitions, for it is the simultaneous holding of inconsistent cognitions that gives rise to the experience of dissonance. Festinger thought of a cognition as any piece of knowledge that we

have. We can have knowledge about our beliefs, our behavior, our feelings, or about the state of the environment. We may have dozens of cognitions of which we are at least dimly aware at any moment in time and innumerable more of which we can become aware, once our attention or memory is set in motion. Most of the cognitions that we have are not related to each other in any obvious way. For example, my knowledge that I am hungry and my knowledge that the Earth travels around the Sun are two cognitions, but my hunger bears no relationship to the trajectory of the planets. However, some cognitions are directly related. My knowledge that I am hungry is very much related to my behavior at the local restaurant in which I am sitting. If I order a meal, the knowledge of that behavior is related to my knowledge that I'm hungry. In fact, it is quite consistent with my hunger. However, if I decide to forego the meal, or simply order a cup of coffee, my ordering behavior is again related to my hunger, but this time it is inconsistent.

Cognitive dissonance is all about the consequences of inconsistency. We prefer consistency to inconsistency and work hard to maintain (or restore) consistency among our cognitions. Failing to order food to allay my hunger at the restaurant, I may convince myself that I was not really that hungry, or that the restaurant's food was bad. In this way, the inconsistency between my knowledge of my hunger and the decision not to purchase food would seem more consistent. In many ways, the need to restore consistency is similar to the familiar concept of rationalization— indeed, rationalization is one way to deal with the dilemma posed by inconsistent cognitions.

Formally, the state of cognitive dissonance occurs when a person holds one cognition that follows from the obverse of another cognition. For example, not ordering food at the restaurant would follow from the obverse or opposite of being hungry. If I were full, I would not be

expected to order food. But I was not full, and thus the decision to refrain from eating would follow from the obverse of my knowledge that I was hungry. The condition for dissonance is met.

How does cognitive dissonance feel? Dissonance is experienced as an unpleasant emotion, akin to feeling uncomfortable, bothered, or tense. In addition, dissonance is motivational. When we experience dissonance, we are motivated to reduce it, much like the way we are motivated to reduce physical drives such as hunger and thirst. The more dissonance we experience, the more we are motivated to find a way to reduce it. This need can lead to the kinds of rationalizing behaviors, such as those encountered in the restaurant scenario. Not ordering food when hungry creates a state of cognitive dissonance. Rationalizing, by convincing ourselves that we were not so hungry after all, reduces the inconsistency and thereby reduces the unpleasant state of dissonance.

The History of Cognitive Dissonance Research: Predictions and Findings

Choices, Choices

The occasions that cause us to experience dissonance are ubiquitous. Whenever we make a choice, there is the potential for dissonance. Imagine that you are purchasing an automobile. It is a tough choice with many alternatives from which to choose. Let's say you have narrowed the field to your two favorite options: a slightly used BMW and a brand-new Neon. **You** consider the pros and cons of each car. The BMW is fast, gorgeous, and attracts positive attention. The Neon is new, so you can get a full selection of colors and a multiyear warranty. On the other hand, the BMW, being old, is more likely to break down, the cost of repairs is high, and you must take it in green. The downside of the Neon, you believe, is that it is slow, less attractive, and handles

sluggishly. You choose the BMW, satisfied that, on balance, it provided more of what you were looking for than the Neon.

But wait… you have now selected a car that has several negative features. What if it breaks down? What if your friends hate the color green? And what do you do about the features of the Neon that you are giving up? You liked the warranty, and now you don't have it. You liked the price, but you've now spent more money buying the BMW. All of these thoughts are inconsistent with your decision to buy the BMW. According to the theory of cognitive dissonance, you experience an unpleasant tension. Each time you think of a cognition that supported the Neon over the BMW, your tension rises. You are driven to reduce it. What can you do? Here are some possibilities: (a) You can increase the importance of some of the factors that caused you to like the BMW in the first place. Suddenly, speed seems like the most important dimension you can think of when it comes to buying a car. (b) You can reduce the importance of some of the good features of the Neon. For example, you decide that warranties are often deceptive and the parts of cars that break are usually not covered. (c) You can add cognitions that support your choice that you hadn't considered previously. You may think about how many more people will be friends with you when you drive the BMW or how many people would have thought you were dull if you had picked the Neon. In the end, you may perform any or all of the cognitive changes that help you reduce your dissonance. And there is a measurable consequence to these cognitive changes. When you made your choice, you liked the BMW a bit more than you liked the Neon. By the time you are finished with your rationalizations and distortions that have been at the service of reducing cognitive dissonance, you will like the BMW much better than the (now) boring little Neon!

The predictions in the automobile purchasing scenario were confirmed in the first reported laboratory research on cognitive dissonance. In his 1956 study, Jack W. Brehm asked consumers to rate a variety of household items such as blenders and toasters. He told the consumers that they would be able to take home one of two items from the longer list of products. To create a high degree of dissonance, similar to the automobile example, Brehm asked the participants to choose between two highly attractive, closely related products. Brehm predicted that, just like the hypothetical BMW example, the consumers would rate the chosen product much more highly than they had rated it previously, and that they would downgrade the product that they did not choose. This is exactly what happened.

Changing Your Attitudes for Less

Here is another "thought experiment": Imagine that a researcher asks you to write an essay in which you argue that tuition rates at public and private colleges should increase. The researcher tells you that the Dean of your college is trying to understand the arguments in favor of and against tuition increases, and you have been asked to write in favor. You think to yourself that this would be difficult because you do not want to see tuition rates increase. The researcher tells you that you can decide whether or not to write the essay, but he would really appreciate your doing it. You think it over and then agree. Now, you have a cognitive dissonance dilemma. Writing an essay in favor of a tuition increase is discrepant with your negative attitude about tuition. But you agreed that you would write it. This scenario should arouse dissonance. What can you do? Among the alternatives at your disposal is to decide that you really are not against tuition increases after all. If you actually believe that it is okay to raise tuition rates, then there will not be any cognitive dissonance resulting from your writing the essay. Similarly, it may be that politicians who are cajoled to support issues

that they initially do not believe suffer the aversive state of dissonance and reduce it by coming to believe the position that they had just advocated— even though they did not believe it when they agreed to make the speech.

Once again, research in the laboratory demonstrated the truth of this prediction. Just as in the previous scenario, Festinger and his student, J. Merrill Carlsmith, showed that college students who agreed to make a speech with which they initially disagreed came to believe in the position they advocated following the speech. But there was more to this scenario: The students were given a monetary incentive to say what they did not believe. Would the magnitude of the incentive affect attitude change? Would speakers who received a large reward for making such a statement come to believe it more than students who received only a small token? Such a prediction may seem reasonable from what is known about the usual effects of rewards. Pigeons, rodents, and even humans have been shown to learn and act based on the magnitude of reward they receive for their behavior. However, dissonance theory makes a startling and nonobvious prediction—the lower the reward, the greater will be the attitude change. The magnitude of cognitive dissonance is increased by the magnitude and importance of the inconsistent cognitions a person holds, but it is reduced by the magnitude and importance of the consistent cognitions. Knowing that you made a speech that is contrary to your opinion is a cognition inconsistent with your opinion. On the other hand, receiving a bundle of money as a reward for the speech is a cognition quite consistent with giving the speech. The higher the reward is, the more important consistent cognition becomes. Therefore, making a counterattitudinal speech for a large reward results in less overall dissonance than making the same speech for a small reward. This is what Festinger and Carlsmith found: The lower the reward was for

making the speech, the greater the attitude change was in favor of tuition increase. The notion that people change their attitude following counterattitudinal behavior has become known as the psychology of induced compliance. The finding that attitude change increases as the magnitude of the inducement decreases is perhaps the most telling signature that cognitive dissonance has been aroused.

To Suffer Is to Love

Imagine that you have decided to join a sorority or fraternity at your college. You know that you have to undergo some form of pledging ritual to join. The pledging will not be fun and may be uncomfortable and embarrassing, but you decide to do it. Will the pledging affect your view of how attractive the sorority or fraternity is? The theory of cognitive dissonance makes another bold and nonobvious prediction: The greater is the suffering involved in the pledging, the more you will be motivated to like the club you are trying to enter. The knowledge that you chose to endure some degree of discomfort and unpleasantness is discrepant with your typical desire to have pleasant rather than difficult experiences. However, in this scenario, there is a reason that you engaged in a difficult, less-than-pleasant pledging ritual: You wanted to join the group. Wanting to be a member of the group is the cognition that makes your suffering seem to make sense. Any dissonance created by your decision to endure the pledging is explained or justified by how enjoyable it will be to participate in the group. The more uncomfortable the group's pledging procedure is, the more you need to find a reason for enduring it. And the justification can be made very compelling by distorting how good you think the group really is. Therefore, the prediction from cognitive dissonance theory is that the act of pledging will make the group seem attractive— and the more difficult or noxious the pledging is, the more attractive the group will seem. This phenomenon has been called effort justification.

Two social psychologists, Elliot Aronson and Judson Mills, tested the logic of effort justification in an experiment in which they had students undergo a screening test to join a group that was discussing the topic of sex. For some students, the screening was made avowedly difficult and embarrassing; for other students, the screening was less so. Although the group and the group members were precisely the same, those students who had the more embarrassing and difficult screening found the group discussion to be more interesting and the group members to be more attractive. By convincing themselves that the group was wonderful, the students were able to reduce the dissonance that had been aroused by their volunteering to engage in a difficult, embarrassing screening.

Volunteering to engage in difficult, effortful tasks happens frequently in our lives. Courses we choose to take may require a great deal of preparation, reading, and homework. Sports programs may require us to spend considerable amounts of time in training and in enduring the outbursts of demanding coaches. Yet, the very act of agreeing to participate in such effort has a positive consequence: It pushes us to like the activity for which we suffered.

Cognitive Dissonance and Social Life

Cognitive dissonance is ubiquitous. We like to think of ourselves as psychologically consistent human beings—that we act in ways that are consistent with our attitudes and that our attitudes are typically consistent with each other. We like to think that we make good choices and act in our own best interests. However, life often throws us curves that create inconsistency. The choices we make often lead us to dilemmas in which we need to relinquish some aspects of a rejected alternative that we would really like or to accept aspects of our chosen alternative that we would rather not have to accept. Sometimes, we

find ourselves engaged in effortful activities that make little sense or find that we have to say or do things that do not quite fit with our private attitudes. These occasions cause us to experience dissonance—that uncomfortable state of tension that Festinger introduced in 1957. We do not live with the tension; rather, we take action to reduce it. And that is what is so interesting about cognitive dissonance. In our effort to reduce dissonance, we come to distort our choices to make them seem better, we come to like what we have suffered to attain, and we change our attitudes to fit our behaviors. Discovering and explaining the processes behind these occasions pervading our social life has been the hallmark of research on the theory of cognitive dissonance.

Sociobiology

In 1975, Harvard biologist Edward O. Wilson published Sociobiology: The New Synthesis, wherein he outlined a framework for investigating the biological basis of social behavior. As a branch of evolutionary biology, sociobiological theory aims to use demographic parameters (e.g., growth and mortality rates, gender and age distributions) and the genetic structure of populations to predict patterns of social organization across species. One of the conceptual tools sociobiology contributes to investigations of social behavior is an analysis of ultimate causation. Whereas proximate causal analyses focus on, for example, the behavioral, developmental, physiological, or neural mechanisms operating within an individual's lifetime to produce a particular phenotype, an ultimate causal analysis focuses on the selective forces that operated over generations and led to the evolution of the specific phenotype manifest in the individual.

In this way, proximate explanations answer the question of how mechanisms operate (e.g., the catalog of hormones, neurotransmitters, and brain regions governing behavior); ultimate explanations answer the question of why they were selected for (i.e., how a particular trait affected the probability of survival and reproduction).

Sociobiologists have made progress in understanding a wide range of behaviors, both their proximate mechanisms and ultimate functions, including altruism, patterns of communication, aggression, mating systems, and parental care of offspring. Such behaviors have been investigated in a wide range of species including ants, birds, frogs, and chimps. Wilson's volume sparked heated controversy regarding his last chapter, which extended the principles of evolutionary ultimate causation and population genetics to explain the social behavior of humans.

Among the many reasons for this controversy were (a) misunderstandings about sociobiology and genetic determinism and, (b) the long-held view in the social sciences that social behavior in humans is the product of cultural forces, rather than biological ones. Many opponents mistook sociobiology for arguing that social behaviors are genetically fixed and immutable when, in fact, much of sociobiology focuses on how evolved social behavior is capable of adapting to different environmental situations (e.g., morphological and behavioral change given particular environmental cues). Controversy also occurred because sociobiology ran counter to the prevailing view in the social sciences. Indeed, one goal of sociobiology is the reshaping of the humanities and social sciences to make them consistent with the principles of modern evolutionary biology.

Though based on many of the same principles, sociobiology is distinct from evolutionary psychology. Although both disciplines consider

ultimate causal explanations, evolutionary psychology uses this level of analysis to construct models of the information processing circuitry (i.e., the cognitive programs) required to produce an adaptive response. In contrast, sociobiology steps from selective forces (e.g., limited resources) to social behavior (e.g., aggression) without making explicit the kinds of cognitive programs required to produce a particular behavior. So, though related, there exists a set of non-overlapping goals distinct to each field. Nevertheless, sociobiology and its related disciplines take seriously the claim that principles derived from the modern synthesis, which united Darwin's theory of evolution and Mendelian genetics, can be used to explain the constellation of behaviors in humans and nonhumans alike.

Psychodynamic Approaches

The psychodynamic theory is a psychological theory Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) and his later followers applied to explain the origins of human behavior.

The psychodynamic approach includes all the theories in psychology that see human functioning based upon the interaction of drives and forces within the person, particularly unconscious, and between the different structures of the personality.

Sigmund Freud's psychoanalysis was the original psychodynamic theory, but the psychodynamic approach as a whole includes all theories that were based on his ideas, e.g., Carl Jung (1912), Melanie Klein (1921), Alfred Adler (1927), Anna Freud (1936), and Erik Erikson (1950).

The words psychodynamic and psychoanalytic are often confused. Remember that Freud's theories were psychoanalytic, whereas the

term 'psychodynamic' refers to both his theories and those of his followers. Freud's psychoanalysis is both a theory and therapy.

Sigmund Freud (writing between the 1890s and the 1930s) developed a collection of theories which have formed the basis of the psychodynamic approach to psychology.

His theories are clinically derived - i.e., based on what his patients told him during therapy. The psychodynamic therapist would usually be treating the patient for depression or anxiety related disorders.

Basic Assumptions

Our behavior and feelings are powerfully affected by unconscious motives:

The unconscious mind comprises mental processes that are inaccessible to consciousness but that influence judgments, feelings, or behavior (Wilson, 2002).

According to Freud (1915), the unconscious mind is the primary source of human behavior. Like an iceberg, the most important part of the mind is the part you cannot see.

Our feelings, motives, and decisions are actually powerfully influenced by our past experiences, and stored in the unconscious.

Our behavior and feelings as adults (including psychological problems) are rooted in our childhood experiences:

Psychodynamic theory states that events in our childhood have a great influence on our adult lives, shaping our personality. Events that occur in childhood can remain in the unconscious, and cause problems as adults.

Personality is shaped as the drives are modified by different conflicts at different times in childhood (during psychosexual development).

All behavior has a cause (usually unconscious), even slips of the tongue. Therefore all behavior is determined:

Psychodynamic theory is strongly determinist as it views our behavior as caused entirely by unconscious factors over which we have no control.

Unconscious thoughts and feelings can transfer to the conscious mind in the form of parapraxes, popularly known as Freudian slips or slips of the tongue. We reveal what is really on our mind by saying something we didn't mean to.

Freud believed that slips of the tongue provided an insight into the unconscious mind and that there were no accidents, every behavior (including slips of the tongue) was significant (i.e., all behavior is determined).

Personality is made up of three parts (i.e., tripartite): the id, ego, and super-ego:

The id is the primitive and instinctive component of personality. It consists of all the inherited (i.e., biological) components of personality present at birth, including the sex (life) instinct – Eros (which contains the libido), and the aggressive (death) instinct - Thanatos.

The ego develops in order to mediate between the unrealistic id and the external real world. It is the decision making component of personality.

The superego incorporates the values and morals of society which are learned from one's parents and others.

Parts of the unconscious mind (the id and superego) are in constant conflict with the conscious part of the mind (the ego). This conflict

creates anxiety, which could be dealt with by the ego's use of defense mechanisms.

Social Cognition

How exactly do psychologists define social cognition? While there is no single definition, there are some common factors that many experts have identified as being important.

Social cognition involves:

- The processes involved in perceiving other people and how we come to know about the people in the world around us.
- The study of the mental processes that are involved in perceiving, remembering, thinking about, and attending to the other people in our social world.
- The reasons we attend to certain information about the social world, how this information is stored in memory, and how it is then used to interact with other people.

Social cognition is not simply a topic within social psychology—it is an approach to studying any subject with social psychology. Using a social-cognitive perspective, researchers can study a wide range of topics including attitudes, person-perception, prejudice, stereotypes, self-concept, discrimination, persuasion, decision-making, and other areas.

Examples

Imagine that you are getting ready to go on a blind date. Not only do you worry about the impression and signals that you are sending to the other person, but you are also concerned with interpreting the signals

given by your date. How do you form an impression of this person? What meaning do you read into the other person's behavior?

This is just one example of how social cognition influences a single social interaction, but you can probably think of many more examples from your daily life. We spend a considerable portion of every day interacting with others, which is why an entire branch of psychology formed to help understand how we feel, think, and behave in social situations.

Development

Social cognition develops in childhood and adolescence. As children grow, they become more aware not only of their own feelings, thoughts, and motives but also of the emotions and mental states of others. Children become more adept at understanding how others feel, learning how to respond in social situations, engaging in prosocial behaviors, and taking the perspective of others.

While there are many different theories that look at how social cognition develops, one of the most popular focuses on the work of the psychologist Jean Piaget. According to Piaget, a child's cognitive development goes through a series of stages.

- During the earliest stages of development, children are very egocentric. They see the world from their own perspective and struggle to think about how other people may view the world.
- As children grow older, children become increasingly adept at perspective-taking and have an increased ability to think about how and why people act the way they do in social situations.

More recently, research has provided evidence that children develop the ability to think about the perspectives of other people at an earlier

age than Piaget previously believed. Even young preschoolers exhibit some ability to think about how other people might view a situation.

One of the most important developments in the early emergence of social cognition is the growth of a theory of mind. A theory of mind refers to a person's ability to understand and think about the mental states of other people.

It is the emergence of a theory of mind that is critical to being able to consider the thoughts, motives, desires, needs, feelings, and experiences that other people may have. Being able to think about how these mental states can influence how people act is critical to forming social impressions and explaining how and why people do the things that they do.

Cultural Differences

Social psychologists have also found that there are often important cultural differences in social cognition. When looking at a social situation, any two people may have wildly different interpretations. Each person brings a unique background of experiences, knowledge, social influences, feelings, and cultural variations.

Some researchers have found that there are also collective, cultural influences that can affect how people interpret social situations. The same social behavior in one cultural setting may have a very different meaning and interpretation if it was to take place or be observed in another culture.

As people interpret behavior, extract meaning from the interaction, and then act based upon their beliefs about the situation, they are then further reinforcing and reproducing the cultural norms that influence their social cognitions.

Research and Challenges

Research into social cognition is ongoing. But there are also challenges to some established theories.

Future Areas of Study

So what are some of the different questions related to social cognition that researchers are interested in understanding? Our perceptions of others play such an important role in how we forge relationships, how we interact with others, how we treat others, and how others treat us.

Some of the topics that psychologists are interested in when it comes to social cognition include:

- How do we develop attitudes? What role do these attitudes play in our social lives?
- How do we interpret other people's feelings and emotions? How do we figure out what they are thinking or feeling? What cues or indicators do we use to make these assumptions?
- How is self-concept formed and how does it influence our relationships with others?
- What influence do our thoughts have on our feelings?
- What mental processes influence person perception, or how we form impressions of other people?

Challenges

One criticism of some of the research on social cognition suggests that it is too focused on individualistic behavior. Because the topic itself is so social, some suggest that many of the information-processing models that have traditionally been used to understand the cognitive processes behind social cognition are too limited. Focusing on the collective and interactive aspects of human thought may provide a better

understanding of how people think about and understand social behavior.

What is Social perception [Communication, Attributions]; attitude and its change within cultural context; prosocial behavior?

Social perception [Communication, Attributions]; attitude and its change within cultural context; prosocial behavior

Social perception [Communication, Attributions];

Social Perception versus Faces

The Social Perception and Faces subtests both require processing facial information. When patients have low scores on Social Perception and Faces, they may have a general deficit in face processing that may be affecting their performance on the Social Perception test. In contrast, patients whose Social Perception scores are low and whose Faces scores are within normal limits are likely to have intact face processing, suggesting a specific deficit in emotion recognition or processing of emotional content. Lastly, low scores on Faces with Social Perception scores within normal limits suggest difficulties with face memory, but not necessarily with other aspects of face discrimination.

Social Perception measures comprehension of social communication, including facial affect recognition and naming, affect recognition from prosody and facial expressions, and affect recognition from prosody

and interaction between people. Three tasks comprise Social Perception:

Affect Naming, Prosody-Face Matching, and Prosody-Pair Matching. In Affect Naming, the examinee is shown photographs of faces and selects an emotion from a card to describe the affect demonstrated in the photograph. In Prosody-Face Matching, the examinee hears an audio-recorded statement and selects one face from four choices that matches the emotion expressed in the recording.

In Prosody-Pair Matching, the examinee hears an audio-recorded statement and selects one photograph of interacting pairs of individuals from four choices that matches the meaning of the speaker's statement. For Prosody-Face Matching and Prosody-Pair Matching, the statement content may not match the emotion expressed. This intentional lack of matching allows for better measurement of more subtle forms of communication, such as sarcasm. Available scores assess the examinee's overall performance, as well as the individual skills measured within and across the three tasks.

Social perception

Social perception is typically partitioned into two categories, namely facial perception and vocal perception (Green et al., 2015). Vocal perception involves recognizing and discriminating acoustic properties of speech, and the affective information they convey, where facial perception is decoding affective information from others' facial expressions. Inherent in both categories is the ability to read others' emotional cues.

Generally speaking, there is evidence that individuals with schizotypy show mildly impaired performance on tasks of social perception, though the nature of these impairments has not replicated well across

studies. For example, van't Wout, Aleman, Kessels, Larøi, and Kahn (2004) administered both the SPQ and a facial affect recognition task, and found that positive schizotypy correlated with misclassifying angry faces as happy, and the subscale of unusual perceptual experiences correlated with misclassifying happy faces as angry or fearful. Other studies have extended these findings and observed that negative schizotypy is also related to deficits in facial affect (e.g., Abbott & Green, 2013; Williams, Henry, & Green, 2007).

However, some studies do not replicate deficits in classifying facial emotion (e.g., Jahshan & Sergi, 2007; Shean, Bell, & Cameron, 2007), but these null findings are potentially limited by the emotion perception tasks used, which may be insufficiently sensitive. Brown and Cohen (2010) sought to use a more sensitive measure of facial emotion perception that included neutral stimuli, and found that people with schizotypy were worse at identifying emotions than

controls, more likely to misclassify neutral faces as showing disgust, and that there was a relation between disorganized schizotypy and a systematic bias for classifying faces with a negative emotional valence. Individuals with schizotypy also show deficits in facial recognition, as demonstrated by Larøi, D'Argembeau, Brédart, and van der Linden (2007),

who found that people higher in schizotypy traits endorsed greater difficulty recognizing themselves, and others they know, and also show perceptual distortion of faces, in comparison with people low in schizotypy. These difficulties and distortions were associated with positive and disorganized, but not negative, schizotypy. In sum, evidence suggests that there is a facial affect recognition negativity bias in people with schizotypy, and that kinds of schizotypy may

differentially misread various emotions, which may be driven by a lack of ability to integrate facial cues more broadly.

These results are replicated in studies on emotion recognition from vocal information. Although there are significantly fewer studies overall, they consistently show deficits in vocal affect recognition, the ability to recognize emotions from speech, in schizotypy samples (Castro & Pearson, 2011), as well as in individuals diagnosed with schizotypal personality disorder (Baum & Nowicki, 1998; Wickline, Nowicki, Bollini, & Walker, 2012), and at ultra-high risk for psychosis (Amminger et al., 2012). One study partially extended this finding, with the specification that positive (particularly cognitive-perceptual)

schizotypy was negatively related to vocal emotion recognition accuracy (Shean et al., 2007). Taken together, these studies and the studies of facial affect recognition show a deficit in social perception in schizotypy that mirrors the results of similar studies conducted in schizophrenia (Kohler et al., 2003; Tseng et al., 2013).

Some researchers have reported a negative correlation between ability to identify happy emotions and both negative and positive symptoms (Tseng et al., 2013). In contrast, Kohler et al. (2003) observed that facial affect recognition in schizophrenia was worse relative to controls for fearful, disgusted, and neutral faces, but not for happy or angry faces, and worse performance was connected specifically to negative symptoms. Similar to facial emotion recognition, there is a pattern of general deficit in social perception, but mixed results at the level of what kinds of perceptions are most difficult, and which symptom profiles are most closely connected.

Conclusion

Our knowledge of social perception was once limited to its downstream consequences, such as how categorization and perception influence stereotyping and behavior.[40,152] The past decade has seen unprecedented progress in unveiling the processes underlying initial percepts. Such progress has been driven by an equally unprecedented integration between disciplines, including the anticipated wedding of social-cognitive and neural sciences,[162–164] as well as social-cognitive and visual sciences.[1,2,165]

Together, these perspectives have engendered productive theoretical accounts of social perception[36] and have galvanized research into its basis across levels of analysis. In this chapter, we have focused on the top-down influences in social perception, and importantly, the interesting and nuanced ways in which they interact with different levels of processing. Specifically, we have

reviewed neuroscience research into top-down influences in social vision, a parsimonious account of these influences from the vision and neural sciences, and have discussed how these areas may inform one another and fit within current computational frameworks. We hope the current direction of this research forges a productive collaboration that informs each of the social, cognitive, and neural sciences.

Communication and Perception

Think back to the first day of classes. Did you plan ahead for what you were going to wear? Did you get the typical school supplies together? Did you try to find your classrooms ahead of time or look for the syllabus online? Did you look up your professors on an online professor evaluation site? Based on your answers to these questions, I could form an impression of who you are as a student. But would that perception be accurate? Would it match up with how you see yourself as a student? And perception, of course, is a two-way street. You also

formed impressions about your professors based on their appearance, dress, organization, intelligence, and approachability. As a professor who teaches others how to teach, I instruct my student-teachers to really take the first day of class seriously. The impressions that both teacher and student make on the first day help set the tone for the rest of the semester.

As we go through our daily lives we perceive all sorts of people and objects, and we often make sense of these perceptions by using previous experiences to help filter and organize the information we take in. Sometimes we encounter new or contradictory information that changes the way we think about a person, group, or object. The perceptions that we make of others and that others make of us affect how we communicate and act. In this chapter, we will learn about the perception process, how we perceive others, how we perceive and present ourselves, and how we can improve our perceptions.

Perception is the process of selecting, organizing, and interpreting information. includes the perception of select stimuli that pass through our perceptual filters, are organized into our existing structures and patterns, and are then interpreted based on previous experiences. Although perception is a largely cognitive and psychological process, how we perceive the people and objects around us affects our communication. We respond differently to an object or person that we perceive favorably than we do to something we find unfavorable. But how do we filter through the mass amounts of incoming information, organize it, and make meaning from what makes it through our perceptual filters and into our social realities?

Selecting Information

We take in information through all five of our senses, but our perceptual field (the world around us) includes so many stimuli that it is

impossible for our brains to process and make sense of it all. So, as information comes in through our senses, various factors influence what actually continues on through the perception process.Susan T. Fiske and Shelley E. Taylor, Social Cognition, 2nd ed. (New York, NY: McGraw Hill, 1991).

Selecting is the first part of the perception process, in which we focus our attention on certain incoming sensory information. Think about how, out of many other possible stimuli to pay attention to, you may hear a familiar voice in the hallway, see a pair of shoes you want to buy from across the mall, or smell something cooking for dinner when you get home from work.

Visual and Aural Stimulation

It is probably not surprising to learn that visually and/or aurally stimulating things become salient in our perceptual field and get our attention. Creatures ranging from fish to hummingbirds are attracted to things like silver spinners on fishing poles or red and yellow bird feeders. Having our senses stimulated isn't always a positive thing though. Think about the couple that won't stop talking during the movie or the upstairs neighbor whose subwoofer shakes your ceiling at night. In short, stimuli can be attention-getting in a productive or distracting way. As communicators, we can use this knowledge to our benefit by minimizing distractions when we have something important to say. It's probably better to have a serious conversation with a significant other in a quiet place rather than a crowded food court.

As we will learn later altering the rate, volume, and pitch of your voice, known as vocal variety, can help keep your audience engaged, as can gestures and movement. Conversely, nonverbal adaptors, or nervous movements we do to relieve anxiety like pacing or twirling our hair, can be distracting. Aside from minimizing distractions and delivering our

messages enthusiastically, the content of our communication also affects salience.

Needs and Interests

We tend to pay attention to information that we perceive to meet our needs or interests in some way. This type of selective attention can help us meet instrumental needs and get things done. When you need to speak with a financial aid officer about your scholarships and loans, you sit in the waiting room and listen for your name to be called. Paying close attention to whose name is called means you can be ready to start your meeting and hopefully get your business handled.

When we don't think certain messages meet our needs, stimuli that would normally get our attention may be completely lost. Imagine you are in the grocery store and you hear someone say your name. You turn around, only to hear that person say, "Finally! I said your name three times. I thought you forgot who I was!" A few seconds before, when you were focused on figuring out which kind of orange juice to get, you were attending to the various pulp options to the point that you tuned other stimuli out, even something as familiar as the sound of someone calling your name.

Again, as communicators, especially in persuasive contexts, we can use this to our advantage by making it clear how our message or proposition meets the needs of our audience members. Whether a sign helps us find the nearest gas station, the sound of a ringtone helps us find our missing cell phone, or a speaker tells us how avoiding processed foods will improve our health, we select and attend to information that meets our needs.

Expectations

The relationship between salience and expectations is a little more complex. Basically, we can find expected things salient and find things that are unexpected salient. While this may sound confusing, a couple examples should illustrate this point. If you are expecting a package to be delivered, you might pick up on the slightest noise of a truck engine or someone's footsteps approaching your front door. Since we expect something to happen, we may be extra tuned in to clues that it is coming. In terms of the unexpected, if you have a shy and soft-spoken friend who you overhear raising the volume and pitch of his voice while talking to another friend, you may pick up on that and assume that something out of the ordinary is going on. For something unexpected to become salient, it has to reach a certain threshold of difference.

If you walked into your regular class and there were one or two more students there than normal, you may not even notice. If you walked into your class and there was someone dressed up as a wizard, you would probably notice. So, if we expect to experience something out of the routine, like a package delivery, we will find stimuli related to that expectation salient. If we experience something that we weren't expecting and that is significantly different from our routine experiences, then we will likely find it salient. We can also apply this concept to our communication. I always encourage my students to include supporting material in their speeches that defies our expectations. You can help keep your audience engaged by employing good research skills to find such information

There is a middle area where slight deviations from routine experiences may go unnoticed because we aren't expecting them. To go back to the earlier example, if you aren't expecting a package, and you regularly hear vehicle engines and sidewalk foot traffic outside your house, those pretty routine sounds wouldn't be as likely to catch your attention, even if it were slightly more or less traffic than expected. This is

because our expectations are often based on previous experience and patterns we have observed and internalized, which allows our brains to go on "autopilot" sometimes and fill in things that are missing or overlook extra things. Look at the following sentence and read it aloud: Percpetoin is bsaed on pateetrns, maening we otfen raech a cocnlsuion witouht cosnidreing ecah indviidaul elmenet.

This example illustrates a test of our expectation and an annoyance to every college student. We have all had the experience of getting a paper back with typos and spelling errors circled. This can be frustrating, especially if we actually took the time to proofread. When we first learned to read and write, we learned letter by letter. A teacher or parent would show us a card with A-P-P-L-E written on it, and we would sound it out.

Over time, we learned the patterns of letters and sounds and could see combinations of letters and pronounce the word quickly. Since we know what to expect when we see a certain pattern of letters, and know what comes next in a sentence since we wrote the paper, we don't take the time to look at each letter as we proofread. This can lead us to overlook common typos and spelling errors, even if we proofread something multiple times. As a side note, I'll share two tips to help you avoid proofreading errors: First, have a friend proofread your paper. Since they didn't write it, they have fewer expectations regarding the content. Second, read your papers backward. Since patterns of speech aren't the same in reverse you have to stop and focus on each word. Now that we know how we select stimuli, let's turn our attention to how we organize the information we receive.

Organizing Information

Organizing is the second part of the perception process, in which we sort and categorize information that we perceive based on innate and

learned cognitive patterns. Three ways we sort things into patterns are by using proximity, similarity, and difference.Stanley Coren, "Principles of Perceptual Organization and Spatial Distortion: The Gestalt Illusions," Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance 6, no. 3 (1980): 404–12. In terms of proximity, we tend to think that things that are close together go together. For example, have you ever been waiting to be helped in a business and the clerk assumes that you and the person standing beside you are together?

The slightly awkward moment usually ends when you and the other person in line look at each other, then back at the clerk, and one of you explains that you are not together. Even though you may have never met that other person in your life, the clerk used a basic perceptual organizing cue to group you together because you were standing in proximity to one another.

Social prescribing

Social prescribing is about expanding the range of options available to GP and patient as they grapple with a problem. Where that problem has its origins in socioeconomic deprivation or long-term psychosocial issues, it is easy for both patient and GP to feel overwhelmed and reluctant to open what could turn out to be a can of worms. Settling for a short-term medical fix may be pragmatic but can easily become a conspiracy of silence which confirms the underlying sense of defeat. Can or should we try to do more during the precious minutes of a GP consultation?

Where there are psychosocial issues GPs do suggest social avenues, such as visiting a Citizens Advice Bureau for financial problems, or a dance class for exercise and loneliness, but without a supportive framework this tends to be a token action. The big picture difficulty with leaving underlying psychosocial problems largely hidden in the

consulting room is the medicalisation of society's ills. This ranges from using antidepressants for the misery of a difficult life, to the complex pharmaceutical regimes prescribed to patients with obesity and type 2 diabetes. This sort of medicalisation may help immediate problems (including driving the economy through jobs in the healthcare industries) but it is not enough if our society is to have a sustainable future.

Another way of looking at this is in terms of choice. The consumerist type of choice of provider beloved of the government, is what Canadian philosopher Charles Taylor calls 'weak evaluation'.[1] By this he means a utilitarian 'weighing-up' of generally short-term consequences of a choice. These choices represent 'second-order desires', such as to feel more cheerful, or to relieve a pain, or to have a good experience of hospitalisation. These do not involve the 'worth' of an action, but rather its expediency in terms of immediate outcome. Strong evaluations involve deeper values and address first-order desires. In the present context, whether to grapple with a difficult psychosocial issue requires a strong evaluation because it is about the first-order desires of giving meaning to life, developing your potential as a person, and contributing to society.

SOCIAL PRESCRIBING?

As we have already said, social prescribing aims to expand the options available in a primary care consultation. This expansion is in the direction of strong choices — options that make available new life opportunities that can add meaning, form new relationships, or give the patient a chance to take responsibility or be creative. Usually these services need to be available locally and often within the voluntary, community, and social enterprise sector ('third sector'). Familiar examples are voluntary work agencies, further education, libraries,

social or lunch clubs, self-help groups, befriending organisations, hobby clubs, horticulture, sports clubs, nature conservation, book groups, art or dance classes — there is a huge array.

The multiplicity of options is one of the key challenges. The idea is simple but the reality is complex. How can busy GPs and others in primary care know what is available? How is it done? You can't write it on an NHS prescription.

THE PROCESS OF MAKING A SOCIAL PRESCRIPTION?

There are logistic challenges in making social prescribing work. Keeping track of the NHS is hard enough and community groups come and go even faster than statutory ones. Also, patients who are simply given information about an opportunity will not necessarily take it up without some hand-holding.

A workshop hosted by Bromley Primary Care Trust in 2002 (‘Social prescribing: making it happen in Bromley’) defined six models for overcoming these challenges. The most favoured among existing schemes involves the use of a ‘facilitator’ (or referral agent or navigator) coupled with personal support (often a volunteer) for the patient in actually taking up social opportunities.[3–5] The facilitator is employed to act as a bridge between primary care professionals and the panoply of social opportunities. It is a challenging role requiring good listening skills and the ability to relate in an inspiring way to health professionals, the wide variety of people in the third sector and, of course, the patient who has been referred. There must also be a regularly updated and accessible database of opportunities.

In all cases, social prescribing is a formal means of making links to locally accessible opportunities for patients. Where there is nothing appropriate (especially in rural areas) it can provide a framework for

getting something started. Once the facilitator and supporting network is in place, making the 'prescription' is quick and easy.

BELIEF AND ATTITUDE CHANGE

Although belief and attitude changes often follow technological innovation, environmental or economic changes, theories regarding attitude change tend to focus on intentional efforts to change attitudes with the anticipation that attitudinal change will translate into behavioral change or action. With widespread access to mass media, efforts to influence and change beliefs and attitudes rose to a higher level of intensity. Beliefs and attitudes must be communicated if they are to become known to others or influence the behaviors or actions of others.

Theory-informed communication programs have evolved from a monologic, prescriptive focus on individual behavioral change to dialogic, participatory involvement in social change. Beliefs and attitudes do change, a fact which allows us to hold out hope that the world community will embrace a new attitude, the attitude that G.H. Mead termed the "social attitude," which would allow us to cherish cultural diversity even as we nourish the moral imperative of our shared humanity.

Introduction Belief and attitude change cannot be studied fruitfully in isolation from the constellation of factors that contribute to their formation, maintenance and reformation. While individually held, beliefs and attitudes are, with few exceptions, collectively shared. Eras, cultures, societies, communities and individuals are, in part, defined by the beliefs they espouse and the attitudes they hold. Beliefs and attitudes are neither static nor immutable, but are spatially and temporally variable. Theological, philosophical, phenomenological and empirical interpretations all attest to the variability of beliefs and

attitudes, and contribute to our understanding of those concepts. Given that beliefs and attitudes are subject to modification, permutation, even transformation, it is important to explore both the roots and the ramifications of belief and attitude change. Perhaps since the dawning of human self-consciousness, individuals and collectivities have sought to identify and understand the ultimate causes of events, the forces that constrain or enable processes that lead to change. Over the centuries, the primary cause of change has been attributed to metaphysical providence,

natural determination or the inner logic of history. Even when exceptional individuals were considered agents of change, it was their genetic endowment or accidental propensities that were cited as the cause of their contributions. In these instances, uniqueness rather than shared human characteristics was considered primary. The predominant view, however, held extrahuman factors to cause change.

The Attitude Construct

An attitude is a psychological tendency or mental predisposition that is expressed by evaluating an object or entity with some degree of like or dislike, favor or disfavor. Attitudes are affective, reflecting emotions or feelings attached to categories or objects (people, things, places, issues, ideas, etc.). At one time it was common to find a tripartite division of attitudes into cognition, affect, and conation. Cognition was discussed in the preceding section. Conation denotes a person's behavioral or actionoriented intentions with respect to or in the presence of an object; that is, the desire or volition to achieve an end. Affect refers to a person's feelings toward and evaluation of a given object.

While cognition, affect and conation are all subsumed under the rubric 'attitude' by some social psychologists, in this paper attitude will be used to refer exclusively to the affective dimension of mental

constructs. As defined above, the statement “This law is unjust” reflects a belief. An accompanying attitude could be “I am neither in favor of nor in agreement with this law.” Consonant with the notion that attitudes are of a tripartite nature is the idea that attitudes have three different types of antecedents -- cognitive, affective, and behavioral. Theorists who favor a cognitive base for attitude formation assume that beliefs are formed about the attitude object through a cognitive learning process.

As people gain information about the attitude object, new or altered beliefs may result as a result of that exposure. If altered or new beliefs develop, they will be followed by changed attitudes. The cognitive basis for attitude change implies that beliefs and attitudes are formulated through the process of reasoning. In contrast, theories that postulate either affective or behavioral antecedents to attitude formation give precedence to stimuli-response mechanisms over cognitive mechanisms in explaining this process.

For theorists who postulate an affective or emotional experience as the formative base for attitudes, as was true of early theoretical accounts of classical conditioning, attitude is a result of the pairing of an attitude object with a stimulus that elicits an emotional response. The third alternative is to posit consistency between prior behavior and attitudes, arguing that individuals will express attitudes consistent with their memory of past behavior.

This approach contends that individuals are reluctant to report attitudes inconsistent with their own behavior, unless behavior is thought to have been compelled by forces beyond the individual’s control, in which case attitudes are less likely to change. Increasingly, theorists recognize that different - even multiple - mechanisms influence the wide range of beliefs and attitudes that individuals or

collectivities hold, though cognitive theories have been in the ascendancy since the 1970s among social psychologists.

The Basics of Prosocial Behavior

Prosocial behaviors are those intended to help other people. Prosocial behavior is characterized by a concern for the rights, feelings, and welfare of other people. Behaviors that can be described as prosocial include feeling empathy and concern for others and behaving in ways to help or benefit other people.

In The Handbook of Social Psychology, C. Daniel Batson explains that prosocial behaviors refer to "a broad range of actions intended to benefit one or more people other than oneself—behaviors such as helping, comforting, sharing and cooperation."

The term prosocial behavior originated during the 1970s and was introduced by social scientists as an antonym for the term antisocial behavior.

What Motivates Prosocial Behavior?

Prosocial behavior has long posed a challenge to social scientists seeking to understand why people engage in helping behaviors that are beneficial to others, but costly to the individual performing the action. In some cases, people will even put their own lives at risk in order to help other people, even those that are complete strangers. Why would people do something that benefits someone else but offers no immediate benefit to the doer?

Psychologists suggest that there are a number of reasons why people engage in prosocial behavior. In many cases, such behaviors are

fostered during childhood and adolescence as adults encourage children to share, act kindly, and help others.

Evolutionary psychologists often explain prosocial behaviors in terms of the principles of natural selection. Obviously, putting your own safety in danger makes it less likely that you will survive to pass on your own genes. However, the idea of kin selection suggests that helping members of your own genetic family makes it more likely that your kin will survive and pass on genes to the future generations. Researchers have been able to produce some evidence that people are often more likely to help those to whom they are closely related.

The norm of reciprocity suggests that when people do something helpful for someone else, that person feels compelled to help out in return. Essentially, helping others means that they might help us in return. This norm developed, evolutionary psychologists suggest because people who understood that helping others might lead to reciprocal kindness were more likely to survive and reproduce.

Prosocial behaviors are often seen as being compelled by a number of factors including egoistic reasons (doing things to improve one's self-image), reciprocal benefits (doing something nice for someone so that they may one day return the favor), and more altruistic reasons (performing actions purely out of empathy for another individual).

Situational Influences on Prosocial Behavior

Characteristics of the situation can also have a powerful impact on whether or not people engage in prosocial actions. The bystander effect is one of the most notable examples of how the situation can impact helping behaviors. The bystander effect refers to the tendency

for people to become less likely to assist a person in distress when there are a number of other people also present.

For example, if you drop your purse and several items fall out on the ground, the likelihood that someone will stop and help you decreases if there are many other people present. This same sort of thing can happen in cases where someone is in serious danger, such as when someone is involved in a car accident. In some cases, witnesses might assume that since there are so many other people present, someone else will have surely already called for help.

The tragic murder of a young woman named Kitty Genovese was what spurred much of the interest and research on the bystander effect. In 1964, Genovese was attacked as neared her apartment on her way home from work late one night. She was stabbed and left lying on the sidewalk. She called for help and reports later indicated that many of her neighbors heard her cries yet did not call for help or attempt to interfere with the attack that lasted approximately 30 minutes. A neighbor eventually called police, but Genovese died before reaching the hospital.

The story generated considerable interest in the bystander effect and in understanding why people help in some situations but not in others, and experts have discovered a number of different situational variables that contribute to (and sometimes interfere with) prosocial behaviors.

- First, the more people that are present decreases the amount of personal responsibility people feel in a situation. This is known as the diffusion of responsibility.
- People also tend to look to others for how to respond in such situations, particularly if the event contains some level of

ambiguity. If no one else seems to be reacting, then individuals become less likely to respond as well.

- Fear of being judged by other members of the group also play a role. People sometimes fear leaping to assistance, only to discover that their help was unwanted or unwarranted. In order to avoid being judged by other bystanders, people simply take no action.

Lantane and Darley have suggested that five key things must happen in order for a person to take action. An individual must:

1. Notice what is happening
2. Interpret the event as an emergency
3. Experience feelings of responsibility
4. Believe that they have the skills to help
5. Make a conscious choice to offer assistance

Other factors that can help people overcome the bystander effect including having a personal relationship with the individual in need, having the skills and knowledge to provide assistance, and having empathy for those in need.

Prosocial Behavior Versus Altruism

Altruism is sometimes seen as a form of prosocial behavior, but some experts suggest that there are actually different concepts. While prosocial behavior is seen as a type of helping behavior that ultimately confers some benefits to the self, altruism is viewed as a pure form of helping motivated purely out of concern for the individual in need.

What is Group and Social influence [Social Facilitation; Social loafing]; Social influence [Conformity, Peer Pressure, Persuasion, Compliance, Obedience, Social Power, Reactance]. Aggression. Group dynamics, leadership style and effectiveness. Theories of intergroup relations [Minimal Group Experiment and Social Identity Theory, Relative Deprivation Theory, Realistic Conflict Theory, Balance Theories, Equity Theory, Social Exchange Theory]?

Group and Social influence

Take-home Messages

- Social facilitation refers to the finding that people sometimes show an increased level of effort as a result of the real, imagined, or implied presence of others.
- The concept was first identified by Norman Triplett in 1898, when he noticed that cyclist's performance was facilitated (helped) when training as a group.
- Psychologist Floyd Allport labeled it social facilitation in 1920.
- There are two types of social facilitation: co-action effects and audience effect.
- Subsequent researchers found that performance improved as a result of the presence of others (social facilitation) whilst others found that it was impaired (social inhibition).

- Whether or not social facilitation occurs depends on the type of task: people tend to experience social facilitation when they are familiar with a task or for well-learned skills. However, social inhibition (decreased performance in the presence of others) occurs for difficult or novel tasks.

Social facilitation is an improvement in the performance of a task in the presence of others (audience, competitor, co-actor) compared to their performance when alone.

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History and Origins

Co-action Effects

Perhaps the first social psychology laboratory experiment was undertaken in this area by Norman Triplett in 1898. In his research on the speed records of cyclists, he noticed that racing against each other rather than against the clock alone increased the cyclists' speeds.

He attempted to duplicate this under laboratory conditions using children and fishing reels.

There were two conditions: the child alone and children in pairs but working alone. Their task was to wind in a given amount of fishing line

and Triplett reports that many children worked faster in the presence of a partner doing the same task. Triplett's experiments demonstrate the co-action effect:

Co-action effects: A co-action effect refers to a phenomenon whereby increased task performance comes about by the mere presence of others doing the same task. An example would be running a 100 meter sprint against someone.

The co-action effect may come into operation if you find that you work well in a library in preference to working at home where it is equally quiet (and so on).

Other co-action effect studies include Chen (1937) who observed that worker ants will dig more than three times as much sand per ant when working (non-co-operatively) alongside other ants than when working alone.

Platt, Yaksh and Darby (1967) found that animals will eat more of their food if there are others of their species present.

Audience Effects

Social facilitation occurs not only in the presence of a co-actor but also in the presence of a passive spectator/audience. This is known as the audience effect.

Dashiell (1935) found that the presence of an audience facilitated subjects' multiplication performance by increasing the number of simple multiplications completed.

Auidence effects: An audience effect refers to a type of social facilitation in which an individual's performance is influenced by the presence of others (an audience), which causes an individual's dominant response to occur.

Travis (1925) found that well-trained subjects were better at a psychomotor task (pursuit rotor) in front of spectators. However, Pessin (1933) found an opposite audience effect, namely that subjects needed fewer trials at learning a list of nonsense words when on their own than when in front of an audience.

It seems, then, that the extent of social facilitation or inhibition depends upon the nature of the interaction between the task and the performer.

In some cases, the presence of co-actors/audience improved the quality of performance (Dashiell 1935) but in others it impaired the quality (Pessin, 1933).

What sorts of behaviors are improved by the presence of others and what sorts impaired?

Whether or not social facilitation occurs depends on the type of task: people tend to experience social facilitation when they are familiar with a task or for well-learned skills.

However, social inhibition (decreased performance in the presence of others) occurs for difficult or novel tasks.

Social facilitation is thought to involve three factors:

Cognitive Factors (Distraction Conflict and Attention)

Distraction Conflict (Barron, 1986) theory of social facilitation suggests that rather than the mere presence of others, it is the conflict between giving attention to a person and giving attention to a task which affects performance.

This attention conflict motivates a person to pay more attention to the task and therefore will increase performance for simple well-learned tasks.

Affective Factors (Anxiety of Being Evaluated)

According to Cottrell (1968), it's not the presence of other people that is important for social facilitation to occur but the apprehension about being evaluated by them. We know that approval and disapproval are often dependent on others' evaluations and so the presence of others triggers an acquired arousal drive based on evaluation anxiety.

We are aroused by audiences because we have learned that they evaluate our performance, they are not merely passive spectators, we believe.

Such performance evaluation apprehension enhances drive/arousal

Physiological Factors (Drive and Arousal)

According to Zajonc, behavior that is either instinctive or very well-learned/ highly practiced is improved whereas behaviour that is novel or complex is impaired.

Zajonc's (1966) fundamental claim is that "an audience impairs the acquisition of new responses and facilitates the emission of well learned responses". His crucial theoretical contribution was that the presence of others enhances the emission of dominant responses.

Zajonc's explanation is based upon Clark Hull's theory of motivation which states that a high level of arousal/drive will result in what is now called stress and will produce habitual behaviors (which are often incorrect).

The presence of others adds to arousal and when combined with the arousal arising from a difficult or unfamiliar task results in stress and consequent poor performance.

The extra arousal contributed by the presence of others takes us past our optimum level of arousal and result in the dominant response being

something we can do easily, not something which is new or demanding. This is supported by the Yerkes-Dodson theory of optimal arousal

A dominant response is simply the response that is most likely to occur in the presence of the given array of stimuli. If a task is easy for the person, then the dominant response will be the correct one (i.e. most likely) and so the audience/co-actor helps elicit this. In a difficult task, the dominant response is the incorrect one(s) (i.e. the most likely again) and so the audience/co-actor helps elicit this.

Social Facilitation and Social Loafing

However, there are instances where the presence of others has the opposite effect. That is, sometimes we don't work as hard in the presence of others as we do when we are alone, especially if our behavior is not under surveillance. This phenomenon is known as social loafing.

Psychologists have spent decades studying the power of **social influence**, and the way in which it manipulates people's opinions and behavior. Specifically, social influence refers to the way in which individuals change their ideas and actions to meet the demands of a social group, perceived authority, social role or a minority within a group wielding influence over the majority.

Most of us encounter social influence in its many forms on a regular basis. For example, a student may alter his or her behavior to match that of other students in a class. The majority-held opinions of a group of friends are likely to inform the views of new members to that social group. Furthermore, we are influenced by the requests of people who are seen as holding positions of authority. For instance, an employee will follow the orders of his supervisors in order to please them.

Why people accept social influence

There are a number of reasons why people allow social influences to affect their thoughts and behavior.

One reason is that we often conform to the norms of a group to gain **acceptance** of its members. Supporters of a football team voluntarily wear shirts of their teams to feel a part of the group. Friends may also wear similar clothing to their peers to experience a sense of belonging and to emphasise their shared ideas.

Group conformity can also encourage **cooperation** when attempting to achieve a shared goal. When an individual is able to exhibit a minority influence over a wider group, he or she can persuade that group to work collectively. For example, charity organizers recruiting new volunteers advocate improving their community (e.g. litter picking) in a way that cannot be achieved as easily by just one person acting alone.

However, cooperation can lead to a conformity of views, resulting in a phenomenon known as **groupthink**. When this occurs, team members adopt agreed views and actions in the pursuit of a given goal, but reject criticism from individuals who oppose or question the group's behavior. This lack of critical thinking can have a negative impact on a group's performance as its ability to evaluate its own behavior and adapt to changing conditions is impeded.

Additionally, group conformity enables a sense of **cohesion** within a society. Laws prohibiting violence and theft help to protect every individual within a community. However, such laws depend on people conforming to the norms of the wider group by acting as law-abiding citizens.

Whilst social influence can have a positive effect on behavior, its disadvantages have been a motivating factor behind research into conformity by psychologists such as Stanley Milgram.

Conformity to a narrow set of behaviors and views can discourage the nurturing of new ideas which could improve the lives of a group. It can discourage its members from questioning and debating the beliefs and held by the majority of a group and its practises. This behavior has been observed in cults, where members are often reluctant to doubt the group's authority publically for fear of being rejected by their peers.

Another form of social influence - minority influence - has also been used historically for malign purposes. The followers of leaders such as Adolf Hitler accepted and often internalized the Nazi leader's fascist views without question.

Following the Second World War, German officer Adolf Eichmann attempted to justify his participation in the Holocaust by claiming that he was merely 'following the orders' of perceived authority figures: in Eichmann's case, his commanders.

People tend to conform for one of two reasons: to act based on a more informed view (informative social influence) or to match the views and behavior of a social group (normative social influence):

Informative social influence (or social proof)

People feel the need to be informed by accurate information, and when they lack confidence in their own knowledge, they turn to others in the hope that they will provide them with the correct information. By accepting this information, regardless of whether it is accurate, the person is subjected to social influence.

Social psychologist Muzafer Sherif demonstrated informative social influence in an experiment using the autokinetic effect.

Sherif (1935) placed participants in a darkened room, then projected a single, stationary light onto the wall facing them. In accordance with

the autokinetic effect, when a person is unable to see another object to judge the light's relative position, the light appears to move.

One group of participants was then asked individually how far the light had moved. Based on their own perception alone, they reported that the light had shifted widely **varying distances**.

A second group was also asked how far the light had moved, but gave their answers **in front of other members of the group**.

Sherif found that participants who gave their answers in a group provided varying distances, but that the reported movement eventually fell into an **ever-smaller range**. In other words, when participants were unsure of the light's movement and information was available from other members of the group, they used their answers to inform their own opinions, leading to **conformity** amongst participants.

Normative social influence

A second type of conformity is normative social influence. People want to 'fit in' amongst friends and colleagues, and to be liked and respected by other members of their social group. They value the opinions of other members, and seek to maintain their standing within the group. Therefore, individuals will adjust their own attitudes and behavior to match the accepted norms of the group.

This conformity with the majority may involve following the fashion trends that are popular amongst a group of friends, adopting the rituals of a religious group or watching a particular TV show because classmates at college talk about it.

Social influence and conformity

Social influence takes a number of forms. One type of such influence is **conformity**, when a person adopts the opinions or behaviors of

others. This often occurs in groups, when an individual conforms to the social norms respected by a majority of the group's members.

An individual may conform to the opinions and values of a group. They express support for views accepted by the group and will withhold criticism of **group norms**. **Behavioral conformity** can also influence a group member's actions: a person will behave in a way that is similar to others in the group.

Public-versus-private conformity

When conforming to the social norms of a group, a person may disagree with the opinions that they express or the actions that they take, but nonetheless, they adopt the behavior that is expected of them.

- **Public conformity** involves matching one's behavior meet the expectations of others, whilst privately holding a different view. For example, a student may express a liking for a rock band because all of his friends listen to it. Privately, however, he may dislike their music, but conforms in front of his friends to gain their acceptance.
- **Private conformity** occurs when a person **internalizes** the views of a group, and adopts a majority opinion as his or her own. For instance, the student listens to the music of a rock band that his friends like. Over time, he realises that he too enjoys this type of music. As his **private opinion** has changed, private conformity has occurred.

Asch's conformity experiments

One of the most-cited researchers into conformity was the Polish psychologist Solomon Asch (1907-1996). In the 1950s, he carried out a

series of experiments known as the **Asch Paradigms** to understand the circumstances which led to people conforming to a majority influence.

In an experiment at Swarthmore College, Asch (**Asch and Guetzkow, 1951**) presented participants with a printed line of a given length, and a series of additional lines of varying lengths. One of the lines was the same length as in the initial image, whilst the other two were significantly different.

In a group setting, participants were then asked to individually report which of the lines was the same length as the first. They were unaware that other members of the group were confederates who, in some of the trials, had been instructed to answer that a line which was clearly of a different length matched that of the original line.

Participants were torn between two options: did they report the answer which they had observed to be obviously correct but contradict other members of the group? Or, should they disregard their private opinion and report the answer that other group members were reporting?

Using this experimental design, Asch discounted the potential for informative influence to affect participants' answers. As the matching line length was obvious, they had no need to refer to other group members' opinions.

Even when the correct answer was obvious, Asch found that participants would conform to the group norm and report obviously inaccurate answers.

Asch's studies showed that social influence can lead subjects to doubt their own knowledge when it is contradicted by the majority of their group's members, or to exhibit public conformity and avoid questioning group norms.

Identification

Kelman (1958) distinguished between 3 types of conformity, including **identification**.

This occurs when an individual identifies with other members of a group and conforms to its opinions and behaviors. In doing so, they may seek to gain the favor of other members and to be accepted into the group.

When identifying with a group, a person does not internalise its norms. When they leave the group, they may assume their own beliefs and behaviors.

For example, an employee joining an office may go bowling as colleagues on her team like to visit the bowling alley once a week. Privately, however, she may dislike the pastime and prefer to spend it reading at home.

Internalization

Internalization is a form of **opinion conformity**, whereby the opinions of a group, or minority within that group influence an individual's own opinions. The person may not only express the views of the group publically, but also adopts these new views and regards them as being his or her own - a form of **private conformity**.

The internalization of new beliefs frequently occurs in religious groups, when members privately adopt the spiritual ideas expressed by the authority figures (e.g. a priest or other spiritual leader) as their own personal beliefs.

Compliance

Another form of conformity is achieved through **compliance**. This involves a request that an individual or group complies with the

instructions of another. Unlike internalization, compliance **does not require private conformity**, as a person may reluctantly comply with a request whilst privately doubting it.

Compliance frequently occurs when a person is asked by an authority figure to meet a particular set of demands. For example, drivers comply with the directions given by traffic wardens, and students comply with the requests of their teacher, who they view as holding a position of **authority**.

Compliance may be achieved using a number of techniques known as **compliance strategies**. These are often used by salespeople to persuade potential customers to fulfill their request to place orders.

Compliance strategies include the **foot-in-the-door technique**, which involves a person making a small initial request in order to gain compliance with another question. Once a person has complied with a request, they are more likely to agree to a later, more significant, request. For example, a car sales representative may ask a prospective customer to agree to test-drive a new car. If the person agrees, they may be able to persuade them to extend their compliance by accepting a later request to buy the car.

The **door-in-the-face technique** is another compliance strategy which takes an opposite approach. An unreasonably large request is made initially, followed by the request that the subject is expected to comply with. A person will almost certainly reject the first request, but the second appears more reasonable when compared to it, and so they may be more inclined to comply with the second proposition.

Read more about compliance strategies here

Obedience

Obedience is a form of public conformity which occurs when a person modifies their behavior to obey the directions of another, often in a position of authority. It does not require a subject to alter his or her private opinion.

Hierarchical relationships often involve one party obeying the orders of another. For instance, a son is expected to obey his parents, a teacher directs students to behave in class and a soldier takes orders from a superior officer. In each instance, the person in a subordinate position obeys the other, often for fear of the consequences of disobeying them.

In 1961, as the Nuremberg trials were taking place in Israel, the Nazi Adolf Eichmann gave testimony in his defense that he was merely following the orders of higher-ranking officials when he carried out war crimes leading to the Holocaust. American psychologist Stanley Milgram questioned how such people could obey the directions of others when such actions would lead to such atrocities. **Milgram (1963)** conducted an experiment in which participants played the role of 'teacher'.

One participant, a confederate, was asked to learn a set of word pairs and the teacher would test his knowledge of these pairs. They were placed in adjacent rooms and the teacher was positioned in front of a set of controls to administer electric shocks to the learner. The teacher was instructed to punish the learner with a shock after each incorrect he gave (they were unaware that their compliance would not result in an actual shock to the confederate, who enacted responses to the punishments).

Milgram tested participants' willingness to obey by instructing the experimenters to administer higher shocks. When they displayed a

reluctance to injure the learner, further encouragement to continue the procedure were given.

The study found that all of the participants obeyed the order to shock the learner, but to varying degrees. His findings suggest that obedience to perceived authority figures can take precedence over one's own morals, and that **situational factors**, such as the setting participants found themselves in, can influence behavior even when **personality factors** (e.g. moral objections) oppose it.

Milgram (1974) proposed **agency theory** to explain the tendency to obey authority. He suggested that an individual may be in one of two states at any one time:

1. **Autonomous state** - when an individual's behavior is determined by his or her own independent beliefs and responsibility is taken for such actions. When a person regrets their actions, they experience feelings of guilt.
2. **Agentic state** - a person perceives another as being in a position of authority. They obey orders issued by the authority figure, acting as an 'agent' on their behalf. When this behavior is perceived to be a mistake, the person attributes responsibility to the authority that ordered it, rather than feeling guilt for their role in it.

When a person feels that an authority will take responsibility for the actions that they ask them to carry out, Miller believed that an **agentic shift** can occur from an autonomous to an agentic state.

Factors affecting conformity

Conformity rates within a group vary depending upon a number of factors.

The **size of a majority** can affect conformity rates within a group. **Asch (1956)** tested conformity rates whilst varying the number of confederates taking a common position. He found that conformity increased in line with the size of the majority, but that the most substantial increases occurred as the majority increased from 1 to 3.

Additionally, Asch found that group consensus and objecting members can affect conformity. **Unanimity** of opinion amongst members increased conformity, whilst dissenting voices encouraged other members to behave independently.

Cultural differences can also influence conformity. **Bond and Smith (1996)** found a correlation between conformity levels and societal attitudes in terms of **individualism-collectivism**. Conformity levels have been found to be lower in cultures where **individualism** is valued (particularly in Western countries such as the UK and US). In collectivist cultures, where individuals are expected to behave and work in a way that benefits society as a whole, conformity is often higher.

Furthermore, **task difficulty** can affect the extent to which an individual will consult the majority-held opinion when completing an activity. **Lucas et al (2006)** found that individuals' reduced confidence in one's own abilities to succeed at a task, or low self-efficacy, can increase his or her conformity.

Social roles

A further form of social influence is the **roles** in which people find themselves. Each role is associated with a set of attitudes and forms of behavior, and the role that a person is assigned can influence their actions and opinions.

Most of us are influenced by a number of roles at any one time. You may play a **professional role** - from doctor to wait-staff, naval officer to

writer. Each profession is associated with different types of behavior. For example, people expect a doctor or naval office to be more serious than a circus entertainer, and may try fulfill this assumption when given a particular professional role. Other types of role, such as **gender**, **family** and **societal roles**, can also influence behavior.

Zimbardo et al (1973) conducted a well-known study to examine how social roles influence behavior. In the **Stanford prison experiment**, participants were assigned the role of either prisoner of prison officer, and were asked to play out their roles in a mock prison which Zimbardo had built in the basement of Stanford University, complete with cells for subjects.

During the study, Zimbardo himself assumed the role of prison officer in order to observe the behavior of participants.

He found that the behavior of those assigned to act as prison officers rapidly changed to meet their perceptions of the role. They would punish prisoners by asking them to perform push-ups and in one incident, sprayed a fire extinguisher in an attempt to quell a rebellion.

Similarly, prisoners themselves adopted a subservient role to the officers, treating them as authority figures and reporting on the 'misbehavior' of fellow prisoners.

Zimbardo found that assigned social roles led participants to behave in a way that they would not normally. Having eliminated participants from the experiment who were likely to behave in an offensive manner, he concluded that it was people's preconceptions of their assigned roles and the **experimental situation** in which they found themselves that influenced their actions.

Minority Influence

Whilst conformity usually occurs in response to the norms of a majority - other members in a social group - individuals or minorities of a group can also exhibit social influence. This is known as **minority influence**.

Minority influence occurs when an individual presents an opinion that is different to that held by the majority. As this opinion is novel and contrary to group norms, the attention of other members' is drawn to it, and they are led to consider the merits of the minority opinion.

As minority influence runs against the accepted beliefs of a group, it cannot rely upon normative influence to lead other members to comply: individually tend towards a majority-held view to feel as though they are part of a group. Instead, a minority view usually needs to exert **informative influence**. By presenting new information (e.g. a key fact) as having been overlooked by the majority, a minority can persuade other members to reconsider their opinion. This process is known as **conversion**. If a minority influence is able to convert a sufficient number of members, the view will eventually become the opinion held by a majority of individuals within the group.

Many social and political movements, such as the civil rights movement in the United States, use minority influence to change the views of the wider population.

Minority influence is more effective when the person expressing the view displays **consistency**: **Moscovici et al (1969)** conducted an experiment in which a group was asked to identify the color shown on a series of slides. When a minority of confederates within the group consistently answered that slides were 'green', other participants were more likely to be influenced when giving their own answers than when the confederates were inconsistent in their responses.

Social Loafing

Social loafing describes the tendency of individuals to put forth less effort when they are part of a group. Because all members of the group are pooling their effort to achieve a common goal, each member of the group contributes less than they would if they were individually responsible.[1]

Overview

Imagine that your teacher assigned you to work on a class project with a group of 10 other students.

If you were working on your own, you would have broken down the assignment into steps and started work right away. Since you are part of a group, however, the social loafing tendency makes it likely that you would put less effort into the project. Instead of assuming responsibility for certain tasks, you might just think that another group member will take care of it.

Or in some cases, the other members of your group assume that someone else will take care of their share of the work, and you end up getting stuck doing the entire assignment yourself.

Ringelmann's Rope-Pulling Experiments

One of the first experiments in social loafing was conducted by French agricultural engineer, Max Ringelmann in 1913.[1]

He asked participants to pull on a rope both alone and in groups. He found that when people were part of a group, they made less of an effort to pull the rope than they did when working individually.

A group of researchers replicated Ringlemann's experiment in 1974, with a few small changes.[2] The first group was consistent with Ringelmann's original study and contained small groups of participants.

The second panel consisted of only one real participant; the rest were confederates who merely pretended to pull the rope.

The researchers found that the groups containing all real participants experienced the largest declines in performance, suggesting the losses were linked to motivational factors rather than group coordination problems.

A 2005 study found that group size can have a powerful impact on group performance.[3] In the study, half of the groups consisted of four people while the other half consisted of eight. Some groups worked at a table together, while distributed groups worked on the same problem communicating only through computers.

The researchers found that people extended greater individual effort when they were in smaller groups in both the distributed and collocated situations. When placed in collocated groups, however, people felt greater pressure to look busy even when they were not, while those in the distributed groups were less likely to feel such pressure.

How Does Group Size Influence Problem Solving?

Causes

If you have ever worked as part of a group toward a larger goal, then you have undoubtedly experienced this psychological phenomenon firsthand. And if you've ever led a group, then you have likely felt frustration at the lack of effort that group members sometimes put forth. Why does this sometimes aggravating malingering happen?

Psychologists have come up with a few possible explanations.[1]

- **Motivation (or lack thereof)**: This can play an important role in determining whether social loafing takes place. People who are

less motivated by a task are more likely to engage in social loafing when they are part of a group.

- **Diffusion of responsibility**: People are more likely to engage in social loafing if they feel less personally accountable for a task, and know their individual efforts have little impact on the overall outcome. This is often used to explain the bystander effect, or the tendency to be less likely to help a person in need when others are present.
- **Group size**: In small groups, people are more likely to feel their efforts are more important and will, therefore, contribute more. The larger the group, however, the less individual effort people will extend.
- **Expectations**: If you expect other people to slack off, you probably will as well since you don't want to get stuck doing all of the work. On the other hand, if you are in a group of high-achievers who seem to be in control of everything, you might also be more likely to kick back and let them handle all the work.

How to Reduce Social Loafing

Social loafing can have a serious impact on group performance and efficiency. However, there are some things that can be done to minimize the effects of social loafing.[1]

- Assigning individual tasks and responsibilities
- Creating small groups and establishing individual accountability can help.
- Establishing clear standards and rules
- Evaluating individual and group performance
- Highlighting the achievements of individual members

Conformity

Conformity is a type of social influence involving a change in belief or behavior in order to fit in with a group.

This change is in response to real (involving the physical presence of others) or imagined (involving the pressure of social norms / expectations) group pressure.

Conformity can also be simply defined as “yielding to group pressures” (Crutchfield, 1955). Group pressure may take different forms, for example bullying, persuasion, teasing, criticism, etc. Conformity is also known as majority influence (or group pressure).

The term conformity is often used to indicate an agreement to the majority position, brought about either by a desire to ‘fit in’ or be liked (normative) or because of a desire to be correct (informational), or simply to conform to a social role (identification).

Jenness (1932) was the first psychologist to study conformity. His experiment was an ambiguous situation involving a glass bottle filled with beans.

He asked participants individually to estimate how many beans the bottle contained. Jenness then put the group in a room with the bottle, and asked them to provide a group estimate through discussion.

Participants were then asked to estimate the number on their own again to find whether their initial estimates had altered based on the influence of the majority.

Jenness then interviewed the participants individually again, and asked if they would like to change their original estimates, or stay with the group's estimate. Almost all changed their individual guesses to be closer to the group estimate.

However, perhaps the most famous conformity experiment was by Solomon Asch (1951) and his line judgment experiment.

Types of Conformity

Kelman (1958) distinguished between three different types of conformity:

Compliance (or group acceptance)

This occurs 'when an individual accepts influence because he hopes to achieve a favorable reaction from another person or group. He adopts the induced behavior because....he expects to gain specific rewards or approval and avoid specific punishment or disapproval by conformity' (Kelman, 1958, p. 53).

In other words, conforming to the majority (publicly), in spite of not really agreeing with them (privately). This is seen in Asch's line experiment.

Compliance stops when there are no group pressures to conform, and is therefore a temporary behavior change.

Internalization (genuine acceptance of group norms)

This occurs 'when an individual accepts influence because the content of the induced behavior - the ideas and actions of which it is composed - is intrinsically rewarding. He adopts the induced behavior because it is congruent [consistent] with his value system' (Kelman, 1958, p. 53).

Internalization always involves public and private conformity. A person publicly changes their behavior to fit in with the group, while also agreeing with them privately.

This is the deepest level of conformity were the beliefs of the group become part of the individual's own belief system. This means the change in behavior is permanent. This is seen in Sherif's autokinetic experiment.

This is most likely to occur when the majority have greater knowledge, and members of the minority have little knowledge to challenge the majority position.

Identification (or group membership)

This occurs 'when an individual accepts influence because he wants to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship to another person or group' (Kelman, 1958, p. 53).

Individuals conform to the expectations of a social role, e.g. nurses, police officers. It is similar to compliance as there does not have to be a change in private opinion. A good example is Zimbardo's Prison Study.

Man (1969) identified an additional type of conformity:

I**ngratiational**

This is when a person conforms to impress or gain favor/acceptance from other people.

It is similar to normative influence, but is motivated by the need for social rewards rather than the threat of rejection, i.e., group pressure does not enter the decision to conform.

Explanations of Conformity

Deutsch and Gerrard (1955) identified two reasons why people conform:

Normative Conformity

- Yielding to group pressure because a person wants to fit in with the group. E.g. Asch Line Study.
- Conforming because the person is scared of being rejected by the group.
- This type of conformity usually involves compliance – where a person publicly accepts the views of a group but privately rejects them.

Informational Conformity

- This usually occurs when a person lacks knowledge and looks to the group for guidance.
- Or when a person is in an ambiguous (i.e. unclear) situation and socially compares their behavior with the group. E.g. Sherif's Study.
- This type of conformity usually involves internalization – where a person accepts the views of the groups and adopts them as an individual.

Sherif (1935) Autokinetic Effect Experiment

Aim: Sherif (1935) conducted an experiment with the aim of demonstrating that people conform to group norms when they are put in an ambiguous (i.e. unclear) situation.

Method: Sherif used a lab experiment to study conformity. He used the autokinetic effect – this is where a small spot of light (projected onto a screen) in a dark room will appear to move, even though it is still (i.e. it is a visual illusion).

It was discovered that when participants were individually tested their estimates on how far the light moved varied considerably (e.g. from 20cm to 80cm).

The participants were then tested in groups of three. Sherif manipulated the composition of the group by putting together two people whose estimate of the light movement when alone was very similar, and one person whose estimate was very different. Each person in the group had to say aloud how far they thought the light had moved.

Results: Sherif found that over numerous estimates (trials) of the movement of light, the group converged to a common estimate. The person whose estimate of movement was greatly different to the other two in the group conformed to the view of the other two.

Sherif said that this showed that people would always tend to conform. Rather than make individual judgments they tend to come to a group agreement.

Conclusion: The results show that when in an ambiguous situation (such as the autokinetic effect), a person will look to others (who know more / better) for guidance (i.e. adopt the group norm). They want to do the right thing, but may lack the appropriate information. Observing others can provide this information. This is known as informational conformity.

Non Conformity

Not everyone conforms to social pressure. Indeed, there are many factors that contribute to an individual's desire to remain independent of the group.

For example, Smith and Bond (1998) discovered cultural differences in conformity between western and eastern countries. People from Western cultures (such as America and the UK) are more likely to be individualistic and don't want to be seen as being the same as everyone else.

This means that they value being independent and self sufficient (the individual is more important that the group), and as such are more likely to participate in non conformity.

In contrast, eastern cultures (such as Asian countries) are more likely to value the needs of the family and other social groups before their own. They are known as collectivist cultures and are more likely to conform.

Peer Pressure

Heart pounding, Leah leaned against the store's unattended makeup display and slid two tubes of lipstick into her purse. She looked bored and detached as she followed her friends Suki and Jill out of the store, but inside she felt panicked.

"I can't believe you made me do that," Leah wailed.

"Relax," said Jill. "Everybody does it sometimes. And we didn't make you do it."

She said nothing, but Leah knew she wouldn't have done that on her own. She'd just had a big dose of peer pressure.

Who Are Your Peers?

When you were a little kid, your parents usually chose your friends, putting you in play groups or arranging play dates with certain children they knew and liked. Now that you're older, you decide who your friends are and what groups you spend time with.

Your friends — your peers — are people your age or close to it who have experiences and interests similar to yours. You and your friends make dozens of decisions every day, and you influence each other's

choices and behaviors. This is often positive — it's human nature to listen to and learn from other people in your age group.

As you become more independent, your peers naturally play a greater role in your life. As school and other activities take you away from home, you may spend more time with peers than you do with your parents and siblings. You'll probably develop close friendships with some of your peers, and you may feel so connected to them that they are like an extended family.

Besides close friends, your peers include other kids you know who are the same age — like people in your grade, church, sports team, or community. These peers also influence you by the way they dress and act, things they're involved in, and the attitudes they show.

It's natural for people to identify with and compare themselves to their peers as they consider how they wish to be (or think they should be), or what they want to achieve. People are influenced by peers because they want to fit in, be like peers they admire, do what others are doing, or have what others have.

Peer Influence Isn't All Bad

You already know that the teen years can be tough. You're figuring out who you are, what you believe, what you're good at, what your responsibilities are, and what your place in the world is going to be.

It's comforting to face those challenges with friends who are into the same things that you are. But you probably hear adults — parents, teachers, guidance counselors, etc. — talk about peer pressure more than the benefits of belonging to a peer group.

You might not hear a lot about it, but peers have a profoundly positive influence on each other and play important roles in each other's lives:

- **Friendship.** Among peers you can find friendship and acceptance, and share experiences that can build lasting bonds.
- **Positive examples.** Peers set plenty of good examples for each other. Having peers who are committed to doing well in school or to doing their best in a sport can influence you to be more goal-oriented, too. Peers who are kind and loyal influence you to build these qualities in yourself. Even peers you've never met can be role models! For example, watching someone your age compete in the Olympics, give a piano concert, or spearhead a community project might inspire you to go after a dream of your own.
- **Feedback and advice.** Your friends listen and give you feedback as you try out new ideas, explore belief, and discuss problems. Peers can help you make decisions, too: what courses to take; whether to get your hair cut, let it grow, or dye it; how to handle a family argument. Peers often give each other good advice. Your friends will be quick to tell you when they think you're making a mistake or doing something risky.
- **Socializing.** Your peer group gives you opportunities to try out new social skills. Getting to know lots of different people — such as classmates or teammates — gives you a chance to learn how to expand your circle of friends, build relationships, and work out differences. You may have peers you agree or disagree with, compete with, or team with, peers you admire, and peers you don't want to be like.
- **Encouragement.** Peers encourage you to work hard to get the solo in the concert, help you study, listen and support you when you're upset or troubled, and empathize with you when they've experienced similar difficulties.

- **New experiences.** Your peers might get you involved in clubs, sports, or religious groups. Your world would be far less rich without peers to encourage you try sushi for the first time, listen to a CD you've never heard before, or to offer moral support when you audition for the school play.

When the Pressure's On

Sometimes, though, the stresses in your life can actually come from your peers. They may pressure you into doing something you're uncomfortable with, such as shoplifting, doing drugs or drinking, taking dangerous risks when driving a car, or having sex before you feel ready.

This pressure may be expressed openly ("Oh, come on — it's just one beer, and everyone else is having one") or more indirectly — simply making beer available at a party, for instance.

Most peer pressure is less easy to define. Sometimes a group can make subtle signals without saying anything at all — letting you know that you must dress or talk a certain way or adopt particular attitudes toward school, other students, parents, and teachers in order to win acceptance and approval.

The pressure to conform (to do what others are doing) can be powerful and hard to resist. A person might feel pressure to do something just because others are doing it (or say they are). Peer pressure can influence a person to do something that is relatively harmless — or something that has more serious consequences. Giving in to the pressure to dress a certain way is one thing — going along with the crowd to drink or smoke is another.

People may feel pressure to conform so they fit in or are accepted, or so they don't feel awkward or uncomfortable. When people are unsure

of what to do in a social situation, they naturally look to others for cues about what is and isn't acceptable.

The people who are most easily influenced will follow someone else's lead first. Then others may go along, too — so it can be easy to think, "It must be OK. Everyone else is doing it. They must know what they're doing." Before you know it, many people are going along with the crowd — perhaps on something they might not otherwise do.

Responding to peer pressure is part of human nature — but some people are more likely to give in, and others are better able to resist and stand their ground. People who are low on confidence and those who tend to follow rather than lead could be more likely to seek their peers' approval by giving in to a risky challenge or suggestion. People who are unsure of themselves, new to the group, or inexperienced with peer pressure may also be more likely to give in.

Using alcohol or drugs increases anyone's chances of giving in to peer pressure. Substance use impairs judgment and interferes with the ability to make good decisions.

Pressure Pointers

Nearly everyone ends up in a sticky peer pressure situation at some point. No matter how wisely you choose your friends, or how well you think you know them, sooner or later you'll have to make decisions that are difficult and could be unpopular. It may be something as simple as resisting the pressure to spend your hard-earned babysitting money on the latest MP3 player that "everybody" has. Or it may mean deciding to take a stand that makes you look uncool to your group.

But these situations can be opportunities to figure out what is right for you. There's no magic to standing up to peer pressure, but it does take courage — yours:

- Listen to your gut. If you feel uncomfortable, even if your friends seem to be OK with what's going on, it means that something about the situation is wrong for you. This kind of decision-making is part of becoming self-reliant and learning more about who you are.
- Plan for possible pressure situations. If you'd like to go to a party but you believe you may be offered alcohol or drugs there, think ahead about how you'll handle this challenge. Decide ahead of time — and even rehearse — what you'll say and do. Learn a few tricks. If you're holding a bottle of water or a can of soda, for instance, you're less likely to be offered a drink you don't want.
- Arrange a "bail-out" code phrase you can use with your parents without losing face with your peers. You might call home from a party at which you're feeling pressured to drink alcohol and say, for instance, "Can you come and drive me home? I have a terrible earache."
- Learn to feel comfortable saying "no." With good friends you should never have to offer an explanation or apology. But if you feel you need an excuse for, say, turning down a drink or smoke, think up a few lines you can use casually. You can always say, "No, thanks, I've got a belt test in karate next week and I'm in training," or "No way — my uncle just died of cirrhosis and I'm not even looking at any booze."
- Hang with people who feel the same way you do. Choose friends who will speak up with you when you're in need of moral support, and be quick to speak up for a friend in the same way. If you're hearing that little voice telling you a situation's not right, chances are others hear it, too. Just having one other person stand with

you against peer pressure makes it much easier for both people to resist.

- Blame your parents: "Are you kidding? If my mom found out, she'd kill me, and her spies are everywhere."
- If a situation seems dangerous, don't hesitate to get an adult's help.

It's not always easy to resist negative peer pressure, but when you do, it is easy to feel good about it afterward. And you may even be a positive influence on your peers who feel the same way — often it just takes one person to speak out or take a different action to change a situation. Your friends may follow if you have the courage to do something different or refuse to go along with the group. Consider yourself a leader, and know that you have the potential to make a difference.

Social Power Definition

Social power is the potential for social influence. The available tools one has to exert influence over another can lead to a change in that person. Social power and social influence are separate and distinct concepts. Although social power is potential (which may or may not be used), social influence is an effect, an actual change (or deliberate maintenance) in the beliefs, attitudes, behavior, emotions, and so on, of someone because of the actions or presence of another. The person or group that is the source of influence is commonly known as the influencing agent, whereas the object of the attempted or successful influence attempt is commonly known as the target (of the influence). Thus, influencing agents have social power, which are the means they may use to influence targets.

Social Power Background and History

The ability of one person (or group) to get others to do his or her will, also known as social power, has long been of interest to social psychologists. Perhaps this is because so much of human interaction involves the change or the attempt to change the beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors of another. Because of the long-standing interest in the topic, several different investigations have used different definitions of social power and different ways of measuring power. However, an extensive survey has found that the approach most commonly used originally identified five distinct potential tactics one could use in an influence attempt. This approach was updated some years ago and now includes six distinct tactics that can be subdivided into 11 varieties. Of course, in an influence attempt multiple types of influence are often used at the same time. The types of social power are as follows:

- **Informational**. This type is the ability to rationally persuade someone.
- **Expert**. This social power is similar to informational power except that arguments are not necessary because the target trusts the influencing agent.
- **Referent**. The referent type is based on the target's identifying and liking the influencing agent and, because of this, wanting to comply with his or her requests.
- **Coercive power**. This type involves threat of punishment. These can be things such as monetary fines (impersonal) or simply personal disapproval (personal).
- **Reward power**. This social power type stems from the ability of the influencing agent to grant some kind of reward, either impersonal or personal.

- **Legitimate power**. Based on what general society typically expects of us, this includes (a) the formal legitimate (or position) norm, which is the right to ask for something based simply on position or job title; (b) the reciprocity norm, whereby if someone does something for you, you owe him or her the favor in return; (c) the equity norm, the idea that one is expected to help others receive what they deserve, for example, if you work hard, you should get rewarded; and (d) social responsibility (or dependence), whereby people are obligated to help those who depend on them.

The type of social power used in an influence attempt often depends on a person's motivations. Sometimes people are consciously aware of their motivations, and sometimes they are not. Clever influencing agents often choose the kind of influence they use based on considerations of potential effectiveness and other factors. These factors can be quite varied. For example, some people are motivated by the desire to appear powerful. To feel powerful, an influencing agent may choose a type of influence strategy that makes him or her feel as though he or she is in control of the target of influence. If so, the influencing agent may choose to use coercion or reward in the influence attempt. Similarly, a desire to enhance one's sense of power in the eyes of others, status, security, role requirements, the desire to harm a target of influence, and self-esteem considerations might lead one to choose the more controlling, stronger, or harsher types of influence tactics (such as coercion). Others may wish to maintain a friendship or appear humble. In that case, they would rely more on information.

When these stronger or harsher types of power are used effectively, they enhance the influencing agent's view of himself or herself because the influencing agent can attribute subsequent change in the target to

himself or herself. When this occurs, the powerholder then tends to think less of the target of influence. It has been argued that simply through the continual exercise of successful influence, the powerholder's view of others and himself or herself changes in a harmful way. The powerholder begins to view himself or herself as superior to the person that over which he or she is exercising power, and because of this feeling of superiority, may treat the target of influence in a demeaning manner. This effect would be consistent with the common belief that power is a corrupting influence.

Social Power Evidence

Hundreds of studies published in respected scientific journals involving social power as described earlier have been conducted in several diverse fields, including health and medicine, family relations, gender relations, education, marketing and consumer psychology, social and organizational psychology, and examinations of confrontation between political figures. Studies have been conducted in the context simulations and questionnaires, strictly controlled laboratory settings using traditional experimental methods, real-world settings such as hospitals and other large organizations, and through historical case study analysis.

Importance of Social Power

Much of what humans do as individuals and society involves influencing others. People want and need things from others, things such as affection, money, opportunity, work, and justice. How they get those things often depends on their abilities to influence others to grant their desires. In addition, people are also the constant targets of the influence attempts of others. Thus, it is important to understand what causes people to comply with others' wishes, and how the exercise of

power affects both targets and influencing agents. The study of social power provides that knowledge.

Psychological Reactance

Almost 60 years have passed since Brehm presented a theory of psychological reactance as an answer to these questions. Reactance – the motivation to regain a freedom after it has been lost or threatened – leads people to resist the social influence of others. Since Brehm's first publication on reactance in 1966, the phenomenon has attracted attention in basic as well as applied research in areas such as health, marketing, politics, and education, and a wealth of reactance studies have been published. Forty years after Brehm's first publication, Miron and Brehm (2006) reviewed those areas they found especially relevant and pointed to several gaps in the research. Inspired by their review paper, we set out to explore the research addressing these gaps. About 50 years after the theory was first proposed, it is much clearer what reactance is and what role it plays when freedoms are threatened. However, there are still unanswered but important questions for psychology to clarify.

Reactance Theory

In general, people are convinced that they possess certain freedoms to engage in so-called free behaviors. Yet there are times when they cannot, or at least feel that they cannot, do so. Being persuaded to buy a specific product in the grocery store, being forced to pay tuition fees, being prohibited from using a mobile phone in school, and being instructed to perform work for the boss are all examples of threats to the freedom to act as desired, and this is where reactance comes into play. Reactance is an unpleasant motivational arousal that emerges

when people experience a threat to or loss of their free behaviors. It serves as a motivator to restore one's freedom. The amount of reactance depends on the importance of the threatened freedom and the perceived magnitude of the threat. Internal threats are self-imposed threats arising from choosing specific alternatives and rejecting others. External threats arise either from impersonal situational factors that by happenstance create a barrier to an individual's freedom or from social influence attempts targeting a specific individual (Brehm, 1966; Brehm & Brehm, 1981; Clee & Wicklund, 1980). The unpleasant motivational state of reactance results in behavioral and cognitive efforts to reestablish one's freedom, accompanied by the experience of emotion.

Can Reactance Be Measured?

In their review paper,already provided some answers and further suggestions to the question of how to measure reactance. For measuring reactance as a trait they specify measurements such as the Hong' Psychological Reactance Scale (HPRS; e.g.,) which is still the most commonly used instrument. It has been translated into many languages and is used in countries around the world (However, research still does not agree on the factor structure. While , (reduced the original 18-item scale to a one-factor measure comprising 10 items, suggested a two-factor structure comprising an affective and a cognitive dimension.

Measurements of the state of reactance are rare, possibly because Brehm conceptualized reactance as "an intervening, hypothetical variable" that cannot be measured directly (; see also). However, in 2006 Miron and Brehm suggested that "reactance could be directly assessed through measurement of the subjective experience (feeling) that accompanies the urge to restore freedom").The authors suggested

that future studies should explore what people feel if they experience threats to their freedom. Over the last 10 years the question of how to measure the experience of reactance has attracted increasing attention.

Exploring persuasive messages, developed four items to assess people's perceived threat to freedom with regard to the message.[1] They demonstrated that a message that is perceived as highly threatening to one's freedom arouses reactance, which they conceptualized as a latent variable intermingling anger affect and negative cognition. To measure anger affect, Dillard and Shen asked their participants to indicate how irritated, angry, annoyed, and aggravated they were with regard to a freedom-threatening message. Further, they instructed participants to write down whatever came to mind after reading the message. Independent raters coded the thoughts as supportive, neutral, or negative. They found that anger and negative cognitions in the form of counterarguments mediated the relationship between the freedom-threatening message and people's attitudes toward the message. This attitude guided people's behavioral intentions to follow or not follow the advice of the message. But did affect and cognition have separate or combined effects on people's responses to the message? To test this, the authors compared four structural equation models: a single-process cognitive model, a single-process affective model, a dual-process model in which affective and cognitive reactions had unique effects on people's responses to the persuasive message, and an intertwined model in which affect and cognition were considered an alloy that could not be disentangled. In two studies they found the best fit for the intertwined model. In a meta-analytic review of 20 studies, Rains (2013) confirmed that the intertwined model was superior to the alternative models.

In a line of research on cross-cultural reactance (also see the section Reactance, Culture, and the Self), Jonas and colleagues used a different approach to measure the experience of reactance. They combined items assessing people's perception of threat to their freedom with items assessing people's emotional experience.[2] This measure has been shown to mediate the effect of freedom threat on behavioral intentions (e.g., the intention to help, J, Study 4). It has since been used in several studies investigating reactance in the context of change situations (e.g., personal change or political reforms), vicarious threats, and culture, and it has been shown to mediate cognitive and behavioral outcome variables such as attitude, intended and real resistance behavior, and performance validated these items together with items assessing aggressive behavioral intentions as well as negative evaluations and propose a new state reactance measure, the so-called Salzburger State Reactance Scale.

also suggested that another way of directly assessing reactance would be to use physiological measures. research has demonstrated that freedom threats affect people's physiological arousal. Whereas in the previous study (Baum et al., 1986 arousal level increased when people were confronted with an uncontrollable event, such as a threat to their freedom, in the more recent studies (Sittenthaler, Jonas, et al., 2015; Sittenthaler, Steindl, et al., 2015 merely imagining being restricted from visiting a flat they might have wanted to rent was sufficient to increase people's heart rate. Interestingly, there was a difference between the heart rate increase following an illegitimate restriction (unexpected and inappropriate) and a legitimate restriction (unexpected but appropriate, i.e., when people were given reasons for not being allowed to visit the flat). When confronted with an illegitimate restriction, people's heart rate increased immediately. Heart rate also increased following a legitimate restriction, but only

after a time delay. This finding led us to assume that different processes might be involved when people are confronted with different kinds of threats to their freedom. Whereas some threats (e.g., illegitimate threats) seem to follow a more emotional process leading to immediate arousal, others might induce people to reflect upon the situation before getting into an arousal state (Sittenthaler, Steindl, et al., 2015; see also Sittenthaler, Jonas, et al., 2015, for similar processes when confronted with self-experienced vs. vicarious reactance, on which we elaborate in more detail below). These findings suggest that dual processes in the form of more automatic, impulsive affect-driven versus more cognitive dominated reflective information processing appear to be important when looking at reactance processes following different kinds of threats. Affect and motivational arousal seem to be involved in both types of reactance responses, but occurring a bit later for the more reflective, cognitively oriented responses. These findings allow us to connect this line of research with Dillard and Shen's (2005) intertwined model, which conceptualizes reactance as a latent variable intermingling affect and cognition (see also Rains, 2013). Even if people first reflect on the restriction to their freedom (cognition), the experience of reactance seems to be also characterized by affect.

Different lines of research all suggest that one important component of reactance is the experience of anger. Anger is typically understood as a negative emotion but is also related to motivation, namely, approach motivation (Harmon-Jones, 2003, 2004; Harmon-Jones & Allen, 1998; Harmon-Jones, Harmon-Jones, Abramson, & Peterson, 2009). Approach motivation – the motivation to move toward something – is a force that determines human behavior and affect (Gray, 1982, 1990). It contrasts with avoidance motivation, which motivates people to withdraw (Harmon-Jones, Harmon-Jones, & Price, 2013). In a theoretical overview on reactance, Chadee (2011) even proposed that

approach motivation is the necessary prerequisite for reactance to emerge. Feeling able to resolve a threatening event (i.e., to cope with a situation) has been shown to evoke approach motivation (Harmon-Jones, Lueck, Fearn, & Harmon-Jones, 2006; Harmon-Jones, Sigelman, Bohlig, & Harmon-Jones, 2003). Because people experiencing reactance are striving to restore their freedom (i.e., they seem able to cope with the threat), reactance should be associated with approach motivation. Steindl, Jnas, Klackl, and Sittenthaler (2015) used electroencephalography (EEG) and found that reactance was associated with heightened left frontal alpha asymmetry, which is thought to be an indicator of approach motivation (Harmon-Jones, 2003; Harmon-Jones & Allen, 1998).

In summary, recent research suggests that reactance can indeed be measured. It is possible to assess people's experience of a threatening situation, the cognitive and affective processes that are activated by it, and the physiological arousal and activity in the brain that accompany the attempt to restore freedom. However, the extent to which people are affected by threats to their freedom and the resulting motivation to restore their freedom strongly depend on a person's self being involved in the reactance process.

Reactance, Culture, and the Self

Miron and Brehm (2006) proposed that different cultures, such as individualistic and collectivistic, react to different threats and in different ways to restore their freedom. They suggested that it might be crucial whether a threat comes from individuals inside or outside one's group. They cited research showing that individualists and collectivists differ in their expectations of control and choice and thus in their self-construal, making them more or less sensitive to threats (Iyengar & Lepper, 1999). Assessing people's experience of reactance

by measuring perceived threat and emotional experience, Jonas et al. (2009) showed that individualists or people with an independent self-construal are more affected by threats to their individual, personal freedom (e.g., doing another person a favor by lending him/her one's business car), in contrast to collectivists or people with an interdependent self-construal, who are more affected by threats to their collective freedom, that is, threats affecting not only themselves but also their group (e.g., doing another branch a favor by lending them a pool of business cars). The same results were obtained when independent versus interdependent values were primed by describing the differences versus similarities between themselves and their close others (see Trafimov, Triandis, & Goto, 1991). This suggests that people's experience of reactance strongly depends on the goals and values most accessible when the threat occurs. In these cultural studies, whether the values were group or individual was the key factor causing the differences in reactance. Thus, the experience of reactance as a mix of perceived threat and emotions seems to be motivational in nature. Only if people's values are affected do they seem to be energized to strive for a restoration of their freedom.

Graupmann, Jonas, Meier, Hawelka, and Aichhorn (2012) found that a threat to freedom of choice coming from one's ingroup aroused more reactance in individualistic than in collectivistic people. Individualists indicated a higher increase of attractiveness of the eliminated option when the threat originated in the ingroup versus an outgroup. In contrast, collectivists indicated a higher increase in attractiveness of the eliminated option when the threat originated in an outgroup versus the ingroup. This again seems to be because individualists highly value their individual freedom and distinctiveness from their ingroup (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Thus, they are highly threatened by decisions coming from the ingroup. Collectivists, by contrast, highly value the

connectedness with their ingroup (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) and thus, do not feel threatened by decisions coming from the ingroup.

Further evidence illustrating the motivational character of reactance comes from Laurin, Kay, and Fitzsimons (2012). They explained the contradictory effect that some people may endorse a decision even though they are not in favor of it. Two factors determining the reaction to restrictions are the absoluteness of a restriction and self-relevance. If the threat is absolute, that is, sure to come into effect, people rationalize it. If it is nonabsolute, that is, it may not come into effect, people respond with reactance. Both effects, rationalization and reactance, were strongest if the restriction was self-relevant.

The differences in reactance processes that are due to one's self being involved in the threat raise the issue of vicarious reactance, in which a person experiences reactance to a threat to another individual or group, even if the threat does not have any implications for the person's own freedom of choice (Miron & Brehm, 2006). Is it possible to experience reactance on behalf of another person? What happens when people observe the restriction of another person?

Vicarious Reactance

Two distinct views of vicarious reactance exist: (a) It occurs as a consequence of people cognitively taking the role of the restricted person and asking themselves what the restricted person might experience tested female participants who observed an actor being excluded from a decision-making process and found that the participants themselves showed vicarious reactance by rating the attractiveness of the discussion topics higher when the actor was restricted versus not restricted. The authors concluded that "reactance can be aroused by the mere observance of a threat to another's

freedom, without the perception of one's own freedom being potentially directly threatened" (p. 767).

Whereas measured reactance only in the form of cognitive changes in the attractiveness of an option, Sittenthaler and colleagues Sittenthaler, Traut-Mattausch, et al., 2015) assessed the subjective experience of vicarious reactance. They found that people experienced strong reactance as a mix of perceived threat and emotions if they observed or read about a freedom threat to another person. These vicarious reactions to freedom threats, however, were moderated by people's self-construal. People with a more interdependent self-construal or a collectivistic cultural background (e.g., coming from Bosnia or Croatia) experienced more vicarious reactance (especially for an in-group member) compared to people with a more independent self-construal or an individualistic cultural background (e.g., coming from Germany or Austria). Furthermore, people with a more independent self-construal or an individualistic cultural background indicated stronger reactance when restricted themselves rather than being vicariously restricted Other cross-cultural studies on vicarious reactance among collectivists from the Philippines and Eastern European countries (e.g., the Czech Republic, Romania, Russia; replicated those findings.

People respond to both kinds of freedom restrictions (self- and vicariously experienced), but Sittenthaler and colleagues presented evidence that the process underlying vicarious threats is different from the process of self-experienced threats. Before experiencing the motivational arousal state of reactance, people observing a restriction first seem to need to think about the restriction of the other person. This was demonstrated by looking at threatened people's cardiovascular responses Study 2): While there was an immediate increase in physiological arousal (e.g., heart rate) after self-restrictions,

the increase after vicarious restrictions was delayed. Further evidence revealed that vicarious reactance is associated with a more reflective, cognitive process and self-experienced reactance with a more impulsive, emotional process Studies 3 and 4). This was shown by using a cognitive load task (memorizing a 7-digit number), which diminished people's experience of vicarious reactance, and an emotionally distracting task (think about the nicest day of last summer), which only diminished self-experienced reactance.

In a nutshell, research in the cultural context has shown that reactance is a state that (a) is influenced by people's cultural self-construal and (b) can also be experienced vicariously. Only if the freedom threat affects aspects that are important to the self do people show reactance. This illuminates that reactance is motivational in nature. The motivational nature of reactance also becomes evident in the different reactance processes we described before – people's responses to self-experienced and illegitimate threats appear to be more impulsive, whereas the responses to vicarious and legitimate threats seem to be more reflective. Similar different processes can also be found in the persuasion context.

Persuasion and Resistance to Change

If persuasion poses a threat to a person's free behaviors, reactance in the form of negative cognitions, such as counterarguing and anger affect, leads to more negative attitudes toward the message and consequently to less intention to behave according to the message. Counterarguing and anger as an intertwined reactance process have been shown to mediate the effect of perceived freedom threat on reactance effects such as disagreeing with the message

Persuasive messages arouse reactance especially by using forceful and controlling language, such as the terms should, ought, must, and need.

This language has been shown to be perceived as more threatening and as eliciting more reactance than noncontrolling language, such as the terms consider, can, could, and may (Miller, Lane, Deatrick, Young, & Potts, 2007; Quick & Stephenson, 2008). For example, in a study on convincing members of a fitness club to participate in special exercises, people who had been given a forceful message such as "you have to do it" compared to a nonforceful message such as "consider it" experienced more threat, which elicited more reactance (negative cognitions and anger), and consequently, people were less convinced (Quick & Considine, 2008). Additionally, how threatening controlling messages are perceived to be depends on the level of social agency. Social agency is the extent to which a social agent is "perceived as being capable of social behavior that resembles human-human interaction" (Roubroeks, Ham, & Midden, 2011, p. 157). Roubroeks et al. showed their participants low- or high-control advice about energy conservation in the form of a text only, a text with a picture of a robotic agent, or a text with a brief film clip of the agent (Roubroeks et al., 2011; Roubroeks, Midden, & Ham, 2009). Both studies confirmed that the stronger the social agency of persuasive messages, the higher people's perceived threat and thus the higher their reactance (negative cognitions and anger).

With regard to the reactance process in the context of persuasion, research by Silvia (2006) showed that threats to freedom through persuasive messages can elicit disagreement through different paths and that these paths have different consequences. If freedom was threatened at the end of a persuasive message, people directly disagreed with the message. If freedom was threatened at the beginning of the persuasive message, negative cognitions such as counterarguing and perceiving the source as low in credibility mediated the effect on people's disagreement with the message. While

disagreement that originated directly from the threat at the end of the message decreased over time, disagreement that originated in negative cognitions was stable over time. Thus a reflective reactance process, in which cognitions affect subsequent reactions, is a more stable reactance process. Research by Ziegler, Schlett, and Aydinly (2013) furthermore suggests that in this state, people also seem to react very sensitively to the weakness of arguments when confronted with a highly threatening message. However, when they are in a state of positive or negative mood, the strength of the arguments plays a less important role in predicting their reaction toward the freedom threat. Interestingly, in a different line of research only people with sufficient cognitive resources showed reactance in the form of a negative attitude toward a restriction; without sufficient resources they even justified the restriction (Laurin, Kay, Proudfoot, & Fitzsimons, 2013).

So far, affect and cognition seem to be central elements if we want to understand the nature of reactance processes. This is most clearly expressed in the intertwined model of reactance (Dillard & Shen, 2005; Rains, 2013), but seems to be also supported by other research lines. However, even if reactance can be conceptualized as a latent variable intermingling anger affect and negative cognition, we can distinguish further between more affect-driven impulsive processes and more cognition-driven reflective reactance processes. In some situations, these different processes might be driven by both cognition and affect in an intermingling manner. However, in other situations, they might be distinguishable from each other. The latter becomes apparent if we look at shorter persuasive messages where there is less room for counterarguing.

For short messages, it has been found that the framing of the message as loss (e.g., “When you do not use sun protection you will pay costs.”) led to a significantly stronger perception of threat than a gain frame

(e.g., “When you use sun protection you will gain benefits.”) and that the perceived threat was positively correlated with anger but not with negative cognitions (Cho & Sands, 2011). The authors speculated that “different types of messages create differences in the process of reactance” (Cho & Sands, 2011, p. 315).

The influence of different types of threats that rely on simple cues has also been explored in the context of political reforms. Citizens’ reactions are influenced by the way politicians communicate reforms. Focusing on limitations that will result from the change has been shown to evoke more experience of reactance (using Jonas et al.’s, 2009, combined measure of an experience of perceived threat and negative affect) and thus more negative attitudes toward the reform than focusing on improvements that will result (Traut-Mattausch et al., 2008). Furthermore, a study by Förg, Jonas, Traut-Mattausch, Heinemann, and Frey (2007) demonstrated that experts communicating the reform to citizens aroused more experience of reactance and consequently a more negative attitude toward the reform than when laypeople delivered the message. Likewise, in the context of communicating changes, Niesta Kayser et al. (2015) used the same measurement (Jonas et al., 2009) and found that presenting a change message within an approach (focusing on possible positive outcomes) versus an avoidance (avoidance of possible negative outcomes) frame led to differences in people’s experienced reactance. Changes presented as avoidance of negative outcomes aroused more experience of reactance, which mediated the effect of avoidance on people’s lower agreement with the change. Avoidance resulted in more counterarguing and less positive perceptions of the communicator and the change message.

To summarize, in the context of persuasion, most of the recent research has been conducted in the tradition of Dillard and Shen’s

(2005) intertwined model, according to which people receiving persuasive messages perceive them as threats to their freedom, which further elicit an experience of reactance in the form of counterarguments that are accompanied by anger affect. When attempts are made to persuade people by using a forceful message, this message motivates people to present arguments against the persuasive attempt (counterarguing). This is a cognitive-reflective process leading to negative attitudes toward the message and finally results in lower behavioral intention to follow the aim of the message. Research that indirectly manipulated threat through framing has found reactance to be a combination of perceived threat and negative affect Traut-Mattausch et al., 2008). In these studies it seems that certain cues elicit an affective-impulsive process, which further leads to negative cognitions and a behavioral intention to restore one's freedom. This might be comparable to dual-process models and their distinction between more impulsive and more reflective processes of social behavior (e.g., Strack & Deutsch, 2004; for an overview, see Gawronski & Creighton, 2013). On the one hand, Dillard and Shen (2005) and Rains (2013) tested a dual-process model and rejected it. Yet, on the other hand, as described earlier, Sittenthaler and colleagues have shown in two contexts that depending on the threat (legitimate vs. illegitimate threats; self-experienced vs. vicarious threats), people either react immediately or after a time delay with an increased physiological arousal that can be seen as an indicator of motivation (Baum et al., 1986; Wright, 2008; Zanna & Cooper, 1974). Results showing that reactance can emerge automatically also come from studies on the implicit activation of reactance.

Priming Reactance

As mentioned by Miron and Brehm (2006), people do not react only to obvious, direct threats. Reactance can also be aroused in subtle ways

and even outside of conscious awareness. In a study by Wellman and Geers (2009), participants were primed with modified items of the Therapeutic Reactance Sca. Additionally, they were given a pill and told that it either did or did not improve performance on accuracy tasks. Results indicated that participants who were primed with reactance and who were given an explicit expectation that they should be good at the task committed the most errors, contrary to the experimenter's expectation.

showed that even subliminal primes can arouse reactance. They subliminally primed participants with the name of a controlling significant other person who wanted them to work hard versus a significant other who wanted them to have fun. Results reflected that participants primed with the controlling person's name opposed the person's wishes by answering fewer anagrams correctly than participants primed with the noncontrolling person's name.[3] Thus, it is possible to arouse reactance with stimuli not consciously perceived, and relatively automatic processes can produce immediate reactance effects.

However, this is not always the case. found in a study on stereotype threat and negotiation that only an explicit expectation of behavior led to the exact opposite behavior. While an implicit activation of the stereotype that men are better in negotiating led to lower performance in women, an explicit activation led to higher performance in women.

Reactance as Motivation

Reactance theory, following the tradition of dissonance theory, is a theory of motivation. Using Brehm's description of reactance, it is "a motivational state and as such is assumed to have energizing and behavior-directing properti. This contrasts with the concept of learned helplessness, which is a state of passively enduring a threat or even

withdrawing from it). Helpless individuals usually do not feel capable of changing an unpleasant situation. Reactant individuals, in contrast, feel capable of changing the current situation, that is, the freedom th). Consistent with these analyses, in Kray study of “stereotype reactance,” such reactance occurred only if women had sufficient power to act, which supports the idea that reactance develops only if people feel capable of restoring their freedom. Thus reactance possesses energizing and behavior-directing properties when something to restore the freedom can be done .

Although the intertwined model addresses anger, which is a motivational state, it refers to anger only as affect. However, as demonstrated by EEG studies, anger is approach motivational). Thus, reactance is a state possessing a tremendous motivational force that induces undesirable outcomes such as disagreement or devaluation. Interestingly, most of the presented studies viewed reactance primarily as an undesirable factor that has to be eliminated or at least reduced. Several methods to reduce or prevent reactance have already been tested. For example, to perceive a message as less threatening, a restoration postscript telling participants that they are free to decide for themselves what is good for them can help Moreover, if the threatened person takes the perspective of the threatening person or if state empathy is induced by a persuasive message, reactance is lower (). Another method is inoculation, which forewarns people of a potential threat. This strategy reduces the experienced threat and, consequently, reactance effects

However, in other cases, one could even make use of the motivational force of reactance. Paradoxical interventions, for example, use reactance to successfully reduce symptoms such as procrastination (for an overview see .

Furthermore, reactance can produce both undesirable and desirable outcomes. It has been found, for example, that the experience of reactance can elicit heightened achievement motivation . Recent studies have also shown that the experience of reactance can be associated not just with negative feelings, such as anger, but also with activating positive affect, such as feeling strong and determined . We invite future research to investigate the desirable motivational side of reactance in order to make use of its energizing probabilities.

Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

About 50 years of research has provided many answers regarding the determinants of reactance, the subjective experience of reactance, the processes involved, and its consequences. Although stated that reactance cannot be measured directly, research has found a way to do so. idea of assessing the affective, cognitive, and physiological aspects of experiencing reactance Neuroscientific studies using EEG and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) have contributed to an even better grasp of the reactance phenomenon .

These studies showed us that reactance is a state consisting of affective, cognitive, and motivational components. One affective as well as motivational facet of the experience is anger. As anger is typically understood as a negative emotion emerging when people are kept from reaching a desired goal (for an overview , one might wonder if reactance is the same as anger. Although anger is an important component of reactance and has used fMRI techniques to compare conditions in which participants read about reactance-arousing, anger-arousing, or neutral situations. During reactance-arousing compared to anger-arousing situations, the middle temporal lobe, the temporal poles, and the gyrus rectus were active. These regions have been

shown to be involved in mentalizing processes in which people are drawing inferences about the mental states of others.

This suggests one basis for distinguishing reactance processes from more pure anger processes, an issue that should be explored more carefully in future research.

Another interesting question for future research would be whether reactance motivation will always lead to efforts to restore freedom. According to motivational intensity theory the emerging effort people expend to restore their freedom depends on the difficulty of the required behavior. The more difficult the behavior, the more effort is invested, up to the point where it seems impossible to restore freedom. What happens to reactance arousal and striving if one cannot restore an eliminated freedom is an open question. suggested, more research is needed to better understand the role of perceived difficulty of freedom restoration in reactance striving.

In the context of persuasion, the intertwined model describing reactance as a combination of anger and negative cognition that further affect people's attitudes seems to be an important model for understanding the reactance process. However, it is unclear if this model generalizes to all reactance situations, that is, also to those outside the persuasion context. Studies using framing, vicarious, or legitimate freedom threats for eliciting reactance indicate two processes of reactance, a more impulsive emotional and a more reflective cognitive process. People seem to either react to the threat immediately or after a time delay with intermediary cognitions examining the process of reactance induced by guilt appeals found that in the context of guilt that the affective and cognitive reactance component did not correlate, which is in contrast to the intertwined model. However, in accordance with the intertwined model, both

variables affected people's reactions to the perceived freedom threat. Yet, they did this via different routes. Whereas guilt directly affected the affective component of reactance (anger), it only indirectly affected the cognitive component of reactance (negative cognitions) via people's awareness that the message was a guilt appeal. The question of when and how different reactance models (dual-process vs. intertwined) apply seems to be a recent interest in reactance research and should further be explored in future studies.

Similar to the investigation of guilt, it would also be interesting for future research to take a closer look at the relation between reactance and other negative (and positive) emotions, like fear looked at reactance processes resulting from fear appeals from a within subjects perspective and interestingly found that the presentation of humorous information can mitigate reactance and therefore improve the persuasiveness of a message provide more evidence that reactance threat can also result from perceived threats to one's groups and social identities. Specifically, they show that examples of stereotypic women arouse some reactance response in feminist women and examples of counterstereotypic women arouse reactance in more traditional women. Interventions in the context of health behaviors can also elicit reactance which might contribute to the often missing effects in the long term.

Furthermore, how do cognition and affect combine in different types of freedom threats? Is there a difference between restricting a freedom versus imposing an alternative, and if so, how does this difference affect emotional experience, cognition, motivation, and physiological arousal? Although it is difficult to explore these processes in real-world phenomena, it would be enormously enriching for reactance research.

As people are often threatened by other people, reactance plays a crucial role in interaction processes. In any social interaction, one person's reaction influences the other person's experience, behavior, and cognition, which in turn affects the first person, and so on (Steindl & Jonas, in press). Freedom threats are probably common in many social interactions. Customers may feel restricted by salespeople. Service providers may feel controlled by those they serve. Patients may feel constrained by doctors and therapists. Marital partners may perceive threats to their freedoms from their spouses. Future research might consider the dynamics of these reactance processes in a wide range of social contexts, to reach an understanding of how people's reactions to freedom threats mutually affect each other. The papers in the present volume hopefully both address these new questions and will serve to stimulate further efforts to do so.

Conclusion

Since Miron and Brehm's (2006) review paper, research on psychological reactance has continued. Although our knowledge about this fascinating phenomenon has grown, the puzzle of reactance is not yet complete. As Miron and Brehm (2006) so aptly put it, we further "hope that future research will consider the various implications of the theory for real

Aggression

Aggression Definition

In sports and in business, the term aggressive is frequently used when the term assertive, enthusiastic, or confident would be more accurate. For example, an aggressive salesperson is one who tries really hard to sell you something. Within psychology, the term aggression means something different. Most social psychologists define human

aggression as any behavior that is intended to harm another person who wants to avoid the harm. This definition includes three important features. First, aggression is a behavior. You can see it. For example, you can see a person shoot, stab, hit, slap, or curse someone. Aggression is not an emotion that occurs inside a person, such as feeling angry. Aggression is not a thought that occurs inside someone's brain, such as mentally rehearsing a murder one is about to commit. Aggression is a behavior you can see. Second, aggression is intentional. Aggression is not accidental, such as when a drunk driver accidentally runs over a child on a tricycle. In addition, not all intentional behaviors that hurt others are aggressive behaviors. For example, a dentist might intentionally give a patient a shot of novocaine (and the shot hurts!), but the goal is to help rather than hurt the patient. Third, the victim wants to avoid the harm. Thus, again, the dental patient is excluded, because the patient is not seeking to avoid the harm (in fact, the patient probably booked the appointment weeks in advance and paid to have it done!). Suicide would also be excluded, because the person who commits suicide does not want to avoid the harm. Sadomasochism would likewise be excluded, because the masochist enjoys being harmed by the sadist.

The motives for aggression might differ. Consider two examples. In the first example, a husband finds his wife and her lover together in bed. He takes his hunting rifle from a closet and shoots and kills both individuals. In the second example, a "hitman" uses a rifle to kill another person for money. The motives appear quite different in these two examples. In the first example, the man appears to be motivated by anger. He is enraged when he finds his wife making love to another man, so he shoots both of them. In the second example, the hit-man appears to be motivated by money. The hitman probably does not hate his victim. He might not even know his victim, but he kills that person

anyway for the money. To capture different types of aggression based on different motives, psychologists have made a distinction between hostile aggression (also called affective, angry, impulsive, reactive, or retaliatory aggression) and instrumental aggression (also called proactive aggression). Hostile aggression is “hot,” impulsive, angry behavior that is motivated by a desire to harm someone. Instrumental aggression is “cold,” premeditated, calculated behavior that is motivated by some other goal (e.g., obtain money, restore one’s image, restore justice).

One difficulty with the distinction between hostile and instrumental aggression is that the motives for aggression are often mixed. Consider the following example. On April 20, 1999, the 110th anniversary of Adolf Hitler’s birthday, Eric Harris and Dylan Klebold entered their high school in Littleton, Colorado (United States), with weapons and ammunition. They murdered 13 students and wounded 23 others before turning the guns on themselves. Harris and Klebold were repeatedly angered and provoked by the athletes in their school. However, they planned the massacre more than a year in advance, did research on weapons and explosives, made drawings of their plans, and conducted rehearsals. Was this an act of hostile or instrumental aggression? It is hard to say. That is why some social psychologists have argued that it is time to get rid of the distinction between hostile and instrumental aggression.

Another distinction is between displaced and direct aggression. Displaced aggression (also called the “kicking the dog” effect) involves substituting the target of aggression: The person has an impulse to attack one person but attacks someone else instead. Direct aggression involves attacking the person who provoked you. People displace aggression for several reasons. Directly aggressing against the source of provocation may be unfeasible because the source is unavailable (e.g.,

the provoker has left the situation) or because the source is an intangible entity (e.g., hot temperature, loud noise, foul odor). Fear of retaliation or punishment from the provoker may also inhibit direct aggression. For example, an employee who is reprimanded by his boss may be reluctant to retaliate because he does not want to lose his job.

Violence is aggression that has extreme physical harm as its goal, such as injury or death. For example, one child intentionally pushing another off a tricycle is an act of aggression but is not an act of violence. One person intentionally hitting, kicking, shooting, or stabbing another person is an act of violence. Thus, all violent acts are aggressive acts, but not all aggressive acts are violent; only the extreme ones are.

Is Aggression Innate or Learned?

For decades, psychologists have debated whether aggression is innate or learned. Instinct theories propose that the causes of aggression are internal, whereas learning theories propose that the causes of aggression are external. Sigmund Freud argued that human motivational forces such as sex and aggression are based on instincts. In his early writings, Freud proposed the drive for sensory and sexual gratification as the primary human instinct, which he called eros. After witnessing the horrors of World War I, however, Freud proposed that humans also have a destructive, death instinct, which he called thanatos.

According to Konrad Lorenz, a Nobel Prize-winning scientist, aggressive behavior in both humans and nonhumans comes from an aggressive instinct. This aggressive instinct presumably developed during the course of evolution because it promoted survival of the human species. Because fighting is closely linked to mating, the aggressive instinct helped ensure that only the strongest individuals would pass on their genes to future generations.

Other psychologists have proposed that aggression is not an innate drive, like hunger, in search of gratification. According to Albert Bandura's social learning theory, people learn aggressive behaviors the same ways they learn other social behaviors—by direct experience and by observing others. When people observe and copy the behavior of others, this is called modeling. Modeling can weaken or strengthen aggressive responding. If the model is rewarded for behaving aggressively, aggressive responding is strengthened in observers. If the model is punished for behaving aggressively, aggressive responding is weakened in observers.

This nature versus nurture debate has frequently generated more heat than light. Many experts on aggression favor a middle ground in this debate. There is clearly a role for learning, and people can learn how to behave aggressively. Given the universality of aggression and some of its features (e.g., young men are always the most violent individuals), and recent findings from heritability studies, there may be an innate basis for aggression as well.

Some Factors Related to **Aggression**

Frustration and Other unpleasant Events

In 1939, a group of psychologists from Yale University published a book titled Frustration and Aggression. In this book, they proposed the frustration-aggression hypothesis, which they summarized on the first page of their book with these two statements: (1) "The occurrence of aggressive behavior always presupposes the existence of frustration" and (2) "the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression." They defined frustration as blocking goal-directed behavior, such as when someone crowds in front of you while you are waiting in a long line. Although they were wrong in their use of the

word always, there is no denying the basic truth that aggression is increased by frustration.

Fifty years later, Leonard Berkowitz modified the frustration-aggression hypothesis by proposing that all unpleasant events—instead of only frustration—deserve to be recognized as causes of aggression. Other examples of unpleasant events include hot temperatures, crowded conditions, foul odors, secondhand smoke, air pollution, loud noises, provocations, and even pain (e.g., hitting your thumb with a hammer).

All of these unpleasant environmental factors probably increase aggression because they make people feel bad and grumpy. But why should being in a bad mood increase aggression? One possible explanation is that angry people aggress because they think it will make them feel better. Because many people believe that venting is a healthy way to reduce anger and aggression, they might vent by lashing out at others to improve their mood. However, research has consistently shown that venting anger actually increases anger and aggression.

It is important to point out that like frustration, being in a bad mood is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for aggression. All people in a bad mood do not behave aggressively, and all aggressive people are not in a bad mood.

Aggressive Cues

Weapons. Obviously using a weapon can increase aggression and violence, but can just seeing a weapon increase aggression? The answer is yes. Research has shown that the mere presence of a weapon increases aggression, an effect called the weapons effect.

Violent Media. Content analyses show that violence is a common theme in many types of media, including television programs, films, and video games. Children are exposed to approximately 10,000 violent

crimes in the media per year. The results from hundreds of studies have shown that violent media increase aggression. The magnitude of the effect of violent media on aggression is not trivial either. The correlation between TV violence and aggression is only slightly smaller than that correlation between smoking and lung cancer. Smoking provides a useful analogy for thinking about media violence effects. Not everyone who smokes gets lung cancer, and not everyone who gets lung cancer is a smoker. Smoking is not the only factor that causes lung cancer, but it is an important factor. Similarly, not everyone who consumes violent media becomes aggressive, and not everyone who is aggressive consumes violent media. Media violence is not the only factor that causes aggression, but it is an important factor. Like the first cigarette, the first violent movie seen can make a person nauseous. After repeated exposure, however, the person craves more and more. The effects of smoking and viewing violence are cumulative. Smoking one cigarette probably will not cause lung cancer. Likewise, seeing one violent movie probably will not make a person more aggressive. But repeated exposure to both cigarettes and media violence can have harmful long-term consequences.

Chemical Influences

Numerous chemicals have been shown to influence aggression, including testosterone, cortisol, serotonin, and alcohol.

Testosterone. Testosterone is the male sex hormone. Both males and females have testosterone, but males have a lot more of it. Testosterone has been linked to aggression. Robert Sapolsky, author of The Trouble With Testosterone, wrote, “Remove the source of testosterone in species after species and levels of aggression typically plummet. Reinstate normal testosterone levels afterward with injections of synthetic testosterone, and aggression returns.”

Cortisol. A second hormone that is important to aggression is cortisol. Cortisol is the human stress hormone. Aggressive people have low cortisol levels, which suggests that they experience low levels of stress. How can this explain aggression? People who have low cortisol levels do not fear the negative consequences of their behavior, so they might be more likely to engage in aggressive behavior. Also, people who have low cortisol become easily bored, which might lead to sensation-seeking behavior such as aggression.

Serotonin. Another chemical influence is serotonin. In the brain, information is communicated between neurons (nerve cells) by the movement of chemicals across a small gap called the synapse. The chemical messengers are called neurotransmitters. Serotonin is one of these neurotransmitters. It has been called the "feel good" neurotransmitter. Low levels of serotonin have been linked to aggression in both animals and humans. For example, violent criminals have a serotonin deficit.

Alcohol. Alcohol has long been associated with violent and aggressive behavior. Well over half of violent crimes are committed by individuals who are intoxicated. Does all of this mean that aggression is somehow contained in alcohol? No. Alcohol increases rather than causes violent or aggressive tendencies. Factors that normally increase aggression, such as provocation, frustration, aggressive cues, and violent media, have a much stronger effect on intoxicated people than on sober people.

Self and Culture

Norms and Values. Amok is one of the few Indonesian words used in the English language. The term dates back to 1665, and describes a violent, uncontrollable frenzy. Running amok roughly translated means "going berserk." A young Malay man who had suffered some loss of

face or other setback would run amok, recklessly performing violent acts. The Malays believed it was impossible for young men to restrain their wild, aggressive actions under those circumstances. However, when the British colonial administration disapproved of the practice and began to hold the young men responsible for their actions, including punishing them for the harm they did, most Malays stopped running amok.

The history of running amok thus reveals three important points about aggression. First, it shows the influence of culture: The violence was accepted in one culture and prohibited in others, and when the local culture changed, the practice died out. Second, it shows that cultures can promote violence without placing a positive value on it. There is no sign that the Malays approved of running amok or thought it was a good, socially desirable form of action, but positive value wasn't necessary. All that was needed was for the culture to believe that it was normal for people to lose control under some circumstances and act violently as a result. Third, it shows that when people believe their aggression is beyond control, they are often mistaken—the supposedly uncontrollable pattern of running amok died out when the British cracked down on it. The influence of culture was thus mediated through self-control.

Self-Control. In 1990, two criminologists published a book called A General Theory of Crime. Such a flamboyant title was bound to stir controversy. After all, there are many crimes and many causes, and so even the idea of putting forward a single theory as the main explanation was pretty bold. What would their theory feature: Poverty? Frustration? Genetics? Media violence? Bad parenting? As it turned out, their main theory boiled down to poor self-control. The authors provided plenty of data to back up their theory. For one thing, criminals seem to be impulsive individuals who simply don't show much respect

for norms, rules, and standards of behavior. If self-control is a general capacity for bringing one's behavior into line with rules and standards, criminals lack it. Another sign is that the lives of criminals show low self-control even in behaviors that are not against the law (e.g., smoking cigarettes).

Social psychology has found many causes of violence, including frustration, anger or insult, alcohol intoxication, violence in the media, and hot temperatures. This raises the question of why there isn't more violence than there is. After all, who hasn't experienced frustration, anger, insult, alcohol, media violence, or hot weather in the past year? Yet most people do not hurt or kill anyone. These factors may give rise to violent impulses, but most people restrain themselves. Violence starts when self-control stops.

Culture of Honor. The southern United States has long been associated with greater levels of violent attitudes and behaviors than the northern United States. In comparison to northern states, southern states have more homicides per capita, have fewer restrictions on gun ownership, allow people to shoot assailants and burglars without retreating first, are more accepting of corporal punishment of children at home and in schools, and are more supportive of any wars involving U.S. troops.

Social psychologist Richard Nisbett hypothesized that these regional differences are caused by a southern culture of honor, which calls for violent response to threats to one's honor. This culture apparently dates back to the Europeans who first came to the United States. The northern United States was settled by English and Dutch farmers, whereas the southern United States was settled by Scottish and Irish herders. A thief could become rich quick by stealing another person's herd. The same was not true of agricultural crops in the North. It is difficult to quickly steal 50 acres of corn. Men had to be ready to

protect their herds with a violent response. A similar culture of violence exists in the western United States, or the so-called Wild West, where a cowboy could also lose his wealth quickly by not protecting his herd. (Cowboys herded cows, hence the name.) This violent culture isn't confined to the southern and western United States; cultural anthropologists have observed that herding cultures throughout the world tend to be more violent than agricultural cultures.

Humiliation appears to be the primary cause of violence and aggression in cultures of honor. Humiliation is a state of disgrace or loss of self-respect (or of respect from others). It is closely related to the concept of shame. Research shows that feelings of shame frequently lead to violent and aggressive behavior. In cultures of honor there is nothing worse than being humiliated, and the appropriate response to humiliation is swift and intense retaliation.

Age and Aggression

Research has shown that the most aggressive human beings are toddlers, children 1 to 3 years old. Researchers observing toddlers in daycare settings have found that about 25% of the interactions involve some kind of physical aggression (e.g., one child pushes another child out of the way and takes that child's toy). High aggression rates in toddlers are most likely due to the fact that they still lack the means to communicate in more constructive ways. No adult group, not even violent youth gangs or hardened criminals, resorts to physical aggression 25% of the time.

Young children do not commit many violent crimes, especially as compared to young men. This is most likely due to the fact that young children can't do much physical damage, because they are smaller and weaker.

Longitudinal studies show that serious aggressive and violent behavior peaks just past the age of puberty. After the age of 19, aggressive behaviors begin to decline. However, a relatively small subgroup of people continue their aggressive behavior after adolescence. These "career criminals" typically started violent offending in early life. The earlier the onset of aggressive or violent behavior is, the greater is the likelihood that it will continue later in life.

Gender and Aggression

In all known societies, young men just past the age of puberty commit most of the violent crimes. Rarely women. Rarely older men. Rarely young children. Research shows that males are more physically aggressive than females, but this difference shrinks when people are provoked. Males are also more verbally aggressive than females, although the difference is much smaller. Females are often taught to be less direct in expressing aggression, so they often resort to more indirect forms of aggression. When it comes to relational aggression, for example, females are more aggressive than males. Relational aggression is defined as intentionally harming someone's relationships with others. Some examples of relational aggression include saying bad things about people behind their backs, withdrawing affection to get what you want, and excluding others from your circle of friends. Thus, rather than simply stating that males are more aggressive than females, it is more accurate to state that both sexes can behave aggressively, but they tend to engage in different types of aggression.

Aggression and Biased Social Information Processing

People do not passively respond to the things happening around them, but they actively try to perceive, understand, and attach meaning to these events. For example, when someone bumps a shopping cart into your knee in the local supermarket, you will likely do more than just

feel the pain and take another carton of milk from the shelf. Instead, you will try to make sense of what happened to you (often this occurs automatically and so fast that you're not even aware of it): Why did this person bump me? Was it an accident or was it intentional?

According to the social information processing model, the way people process information in a situation can have a strong influence on how they behave. In aggressive people, the processing of social information takes a different course than in nonaggressive people. For example, aggressive people have a hostile perception bias. They perceive social interactions as more aggressive than nonaggressive people do. Aggressive people pay too much attention to potentially hostile information and tend to overlook other types of information. They see the world as a hostile place. Aggressive people have a hostile expectation bias. They expect others to react to potential conflicts with aggression. Furthermore, aggressive people have a hostile attribution bias. They assume that others have hostile intentions. When people perceive ambiguous behaviors as stemming from hostile intentions, they are much more likely to behave aggressively than when they perceive the same behaviors as stemming from other intentions. Finally, aggressive people are more likely than others to believe that "aggression pays." In estimating the consequences of their behavior, they are overly focused on how to get what they want, and they do not focus much on maintaining good relationships with others. This is why aggressive people often choose aggressive solutions for interpersonal problems and ignore other solutions.

Intervening With Aggression and Violence

Most people are greatly concerned about the amount of aggression in society. Most likely, this is because aggression directly interferes with people's basic needs of safety and security. Accordingly, it is urgent to

find ways to reduce aggression. Aggression has multiple causes. Unpleasant events, biased social information processing, violent media, and reduced self-control are just some of the factors that can increase aggression. The fact that there is no single cause for aggression makes it difficult to design effective interventions. A treatment that works for one individual may not work for another individual. One subgroup of extremely aggressive and violent people, psychopaths, is even believed to be untreatable. Indeed, many people have started to accept the fact that aggression and violence have become an inevitable, intrinsic part of society.

This being said, there certainly are things that can be done to reduce aggression and violence. Although aggression intervention strategies will not be discussed in detail here, there are two important general points to be made. First, successful interventions target as many causes of aggression as possible and attempt to tackle them collectively. Most often, these interventions are aimed at reducing factors that promote aggression in the direct social environment (family, friends), general living conditions (housing and neighborhood, health, financial resources), and occupation (school, work, spare time). Common interventions include social competence training, family therapy, parent management training (in children and juveniles), or a combination of these. Interventions that are narrowly focused at removing a single cause of aggression, however well conducted, are bound to fail.

Aggression is often stable over time, almost as stable as intelligence. If young children display excessive levels of aggression (often in the form of hitting, biting, or kicking), it places them at high risk for becoming violent adolescents and even violent adults. It is much more difficult to alter aggressive behaviors when they are part of an adult personality than when they are still in development. Thus, as a second general rule,

it is emphasized that aggressive behavior problems are best treated in early development, when they are still malleable. The more able professionals are to identify and treat early signs of aggression, the safer our communities will be.

Dynamics

In this article we will discuss about:- 1. Meaning and Definition of Group or Class 2. Types of Group 3. Group Guidance 4. Group Guidance Programmes 5. Leadership 6. Group Dynamics.

A collection of individuals forms a group whether there is interaction of the members or not. Without interaction the group is nearly an aggregation. Functional groups are characterised by common goals and inter stimulation and response among members, which serve as means for satisfying individual needs, and in which individuals enter into reciprocal relation with other group members, identify themselves with the group are changed through membership in the group.

Meaning and Definition of Group or Class:

The class or group is a collection of individuals. The class may regarded largely as an assemblage of individuals, each of whom be taught. It is also a social group, having a structure and an organization of forces which give it a measure of unity and coherence. The class may a character of its own. The class has its norms of behaviour or performances. The class has a planned and well organized interaction. It has its own former leader i.e., teacher. The class as such may have a marked influence on its members.

The group has been defined as follows:

These definitions emphasize the following characteristics:

1. It is an assemblage of individuals.

2. It has its own structure and organization of forces.

3. It has its own standard and norms of behaviour of performance.

Types of Group:

Groups characterised by more or less continued intimate face-to-face association and cooperation are primary group, e.g., family; children's play groups, adolescent group, neighbourhood group.

1. Secondary Groups:

Secondary groups are special-interest groups, such as national, political religious, fraternal and professional groups. They don't depend upon face-to-face contact although there may be direct interaction among the members.

2. Socio & Psycho Groups:

In socio groups the purpose is largely impersonal, the members associating together to work on some common objective or problem. Labour union, editorial staff of a school year-book. The psycho group is more personal in nature and the members come together of their own accord primarily for the purpose of inter member association. The girls who meet regularly under the tree in the recess.

3. Organized and Unorganized Groups:

In the organized group the members play differentiated roles in relation to common goals. The degree of organisation may very loose, informal organization to a highly complex, formal one. But, if the group has a leader, it is an organization.

In unorganized group each member functions more or less independently of the others. It is highly flexible, the members being free to develop their roles as they please.

4. In Groups and Out Groups:

The groups to which an individual's belongs and toward which he feels a loyalty are in-groups.

The ones toward which he feels neither loyalty nor sympathy and for which he may feel dislike, suspicion, opposition, fear, or even hatred are out-groups. A nation, race, religious sect, or neighbourhood group that is seen as inferior to one's and viewed with prejudice or hostility. SES, home and regional influences play an important part in the origin and propagation of such prejudice.

Group Guidance:

Guidance, whether or an individual or group basic, includes all those services that contribute to the individual understanding of himself—his attitudes, interests, abilities, his physical, mental and social maturity, and his personal and social needs for optimum development, achievement and life adjustment. It includes services that help each individual not only to gain self-understanding but also to develop skill in self-direction-

(a) in establishing suitable personal, educational and vocational goals,

(b) in planning desirable ways of pursuing these goals, and

(c) in developing standards of value consistent with his life-goals, so that he may be provided with criteria for the choice of experiences.

Group Guidance refers to any phase of guidance personal programme carried on with groups of individual rather than between counselor and counselee or clinician and client in the face-to-face interview. It may

include instruction in the classroom where the content is related to problems of self-appraisal, educational or vocational guidance, personal adjustment and interpersonal relationships. It includes many types of informal play or discussion groups, which often derive the double purpose of studying individuals in their interaction with other as well as helping them to work through certain difficulties and achieve new levels of adjustment.

Group Guidance Programmes:

Group Guidance Programmes have been aimed at assistance in adjusting new school or college situations; improving study and learning methods; making new friends; improving social skills; learning to get along better with other; solving problems interest and abilities and to make suitable educational and vocational plans meeting frustration wholesomely; and developing a workable philosophy of life-values to furnish criteria for the choice of life experiences.

The Purpose of Group Guidance:

1. To provide opportunities for learning essentials for self-direction with respect educational, vocational, and personal-social aspects of life through:

(a) Assistance in orientation in new school situations and in the best use of school opportunities.

(b) Group study of problems of interpersonal relationships and assistance in choice of group experience in the school life that may modify both individual and group behaviour in socially acceptable ways.

(c) Group study of problems of growing up, establishing adult adjustment and applying mental hygiene in living.

(d) Group study and application of sound methods of self-appraisal of attitudes, interests, abilities, personality and character trends and traits and personal-social adjustment.

(e) Group study and application of efficiency methods in learning.

(f) Group study about occasional life and problems of occasional adjustment and progress.

(g) Assistance through groups in learning how to project suitable, long-range vocational plans.

(h) Assistance through groups in learning how to project suitable, long-range educational plans.

(i) Assistance in the development of discerning standards of value for making choices of experiences in various areas of living and the developing of growing philosophy of life.

2. To provide opportunity for the therapeutic effects of group procedures through:

(a) The perspectives gained from the study of common human problem.

(b) The release of emotional tensions, increased insight into personality dynamics, and creative redirection of energy through group study of these common human problems in a permissive atmosphere.

3. To achieve some of the objectives of guidance more economically and some of more effectively-than would be possible in a completely individualized approach.

4. To implement individual counselling to render it more effective through background study of common aspects of problems and the reduction or elimination of many emotional barriers to the discussion of unique aspects of common human problems.

Guidance is a learning process for both the guidance worker and the individual, and this learning for both parties occurs through both counselling and group procedures.

Leadership in a Group:

Effective leadership depends not so much upon specific qualities of personality as upon the working relationship of an individual within a group structure in which he acquires status though active participation and through demonstrating his capacity for helping the group to carry out cooperative tasks. Significant personal aspects of this capacity are intelligence, alertness to needs and motives of others, and insight into situations, further reinforced by such qualities as responsibility, initiative, persistence, and self-confidence.

The newer definition of leadership carries the implication that it may not be so much an attribute of individual as an aspect of organization, like authority, leadership appears to be determined by a system of inter-relationships and involves varying degrees of influence and responsibility. So, except in a completely authoritarian group, there would be varying degrees of influence and responsibility among members and therefore, varying degrees and kinds of leadership within the group.

One of the responsibilities of a guide is to work for the utilization by the group of its leadership potentials and to help all individuals to belong really to the group and to grow through contributing their best services to the group each member of a group can be helped to pay both roles that is, of a leader and a followers, effectively.

Of course, some individuals will exert more influence on a group than others. Any member of a group exerts leadership to the extent that the syntality of the group is modified by his presence. According to his

viewpoint all member actions which help the group achieve its objectives are leadership functions in varying degrees, and it would be inconsistent to speak of the leader of a group. Sympathetic person and able to help members in a practical way who is intelligent relative to other group members; and who is consistent in performing his leadership functions.

Possession of particular traits is not enough to make a person a leader. He must be in a situation that permits him to make a contribution needed and perceived by the group as needed, and he must perceived as being able to make such a contribution.

Group Dynamics:

In the field of group dynamics the term 'syntality' is used to describe for the group what is called personality for the individual. Syntality refers to all the interrelated attributes or independent variables by which a group may be defined. The terms used to describe this syntality of group are 'general ability', 'attitudes', 'performance' and 'morale'. Under morale we find such terms as 'synergy' referring to the sum total of the energy any group can command; 'doggedness' in meeting different situations and 'morality' and 'honesty'.

Synergy has two aspects- 'maintenance synergy' or the energy needed to keep the group intact; and 'effective synergy' or the energy available to move toward the achievement within the group goals. 'Group structure' refers to all the behaviour relationships within the group such as status gradients depending upon the varying roles of individual members * clique relationship.

According to Raymond Cattell "a group is a collection of organisms in which the existence of all (in their given relationship) is necessary to the satisfaction of certain individual needs in each". The term

'dynamics' as applied to groups refers to all the interacting forces within groups as they are organizing and operating to achieve their objectives which involve the whole field of sociometry and the nature of leadership.

The problem of first importance for the guidance leader is to study the group with a view to understanding its syntality and structure. This will involve studying the manners of the group both individually and collectively. Long range personal records of individual members of the group can be sought to answer many questions and also careful observation and study of the individual in action within the group and, of the total group in action.

To secure such information the teacher or guide must plan time for the study of personnel records and for the individual interviews. To study the individual and the groups in action, the leader must plan and initiate suitable activities at the start or be alert for suitable group initiative. These initial activities serve the double purpose of studying the individuals collectively and of helping to bring a real group with common interests and goals and an effective structure of inter-relationship into existence.

In many school programmes, the curriculum may provide for part areas of study in the guidance field at designated grade levels or in specific subject for example, educational or vocational planning, self-appraisal, understanding human behaviour, improving learning skills, getting along with others, or school citizenship.

Motion picture presentation of case studies, story-telling, individual or committee study, and reports on specific problems, dramatizations, lectures, informal discussion, and buzz sessions are among the multitude of possibilities at the command of a group leader. Such orienting activities, skillfully planned and executed, will create

opportunities for the interaction of individuals in a way that will enable them to become acquainted with each other and will stimulate the development of a group structure of inter-relationship that can pave the way for real group organization and leadership.

Beyond these initial stages the guide should strive to be an integral part of a cohesive group with common interests in which each member senses that he has a respected place and a unique role to play in helping the group to reach its own group determined goals.

The behaviour of students in a class or in groups is the area of social psychology. This field of psychology deals the behaviour of an individual in groups. The concept of personality exists in the context of a group of social norms. The interpretation of behaviour of an individual in based on the norms. The norms are the average performance of the group. The standardization of psychological and educational tests is done by developing the norms of the concerned group.

The social psychology may be defined as:

i. “The social psychology is a scientific field that seeks to investigate the manner in which the behaviour, feelings or thoughts of an individual are influenced or determined by comparing with the group behaviours or the characteristics.” -Baron and Byrne

ii. “Educations psychology confines to the reactions of the learners or the student’s classroom behaviours as a result of interaction with the teacher and among the students”.

The social psychology is concerned with both type of group behaviours-positive or desirable behaviour and negative or undesirable behaviour of the individual. Educational psychology is concerned with the interaction of teacher and students mainly positive or desirable behaviour not the undesirable behaviour. The undesirable behaviours

of the students are discouraged and desirable behaviours are reinforced or encouraged. The purpose is development if individual personality.

The standard or norms are development for the desirable behaviour of the group. A teacher has to deal usually a class or group of students. Therefore, it is very essential for a teacher to understand the group psychology rather than individual psychology. In planning and organizing his teaching he has to consider the norm of the group with regard to his level of teaching. The level of teaching is determined with help of class performance or level of students rather than individual level. The teacher must understand the dynamic of social behaviours of students to deal effectively.

Look no further than the headlines of any major newspaper to encounter the present difficulties, conflicts, and threats of human society. Modern humans are said to have socially evolved from more primitive life forms, yet we persist in the brutality of war, regularly experience or exhibit acts of intolerance, and sometimes whether unknowingly or as active participants, engage in many types of bias including gender and race discrimination. Despite this rather gloomy outlook, many continuously seek to achieve purpose through their personal lives and also through interactions with others. How might one achieve a sense of either when perceived threats, social dominance, and social identity are so intrinsically woven into our behavioral patterns? How do societal transgressions like racism or sexism persist in schools, neighborhoods, and workplaces? Behind these questions lies the fabric of social structures that manipulate motivational behavior in sometimes negative ways.

These social structures, when understood in the context of individual behavior in groups, may explain how one might be influenced by others

to exhibit bias. The study of Intergroup Theories, which consist of Integrated Threat Theory, Social Identity Theory and Social Dominance Theory, serve to delineate these structures. By better understanding the research associated with these theories, their respective strengths and weaknesses, and their applications in the workplace, we can realize new methods of reducing both intra- and inter-organizational conflict and discrimination. If an individual takes the time to grasp these theories in concepts and gain a subsequent understanding of the formation of these workplace groups it will help them do a better job and become a bigger asset to their employers, communities and families.

Personal Threat

Personal threat is when an individual believes his or her own resources or identity are under attack or risk and feel the need to protect. A personal threat can be triggered by something as simple as being categorized into a group (Ellemers et al., 2002; Hewstone, Rubin, & Willis, 2002). This type of threat is sometimes called "self-directed threat." For example, a person who received a negative review at work may quit as a way of protecting their personal identity from being attacked. Another example is when someone in a relationship does something wrong and decides to end the relationship in order to "save face" and protect their personal identity.

Intergroup Threat

Intergroup threat is similar to personal threat, only the whole group is impacted rather than the individual. "As a general definition, intergroup threat occurs when one group's actions, beliefs, or characteristics challenge the goal attainment or well-being of another group" (Riek, Mania, & Gaertner, 2006). Intergroup threat has traditionally been depicted as competition for resources or status, but

also occurs under conditions of social comparison (Brown, 1978; Shipley, 2008). The general idea is that members of one group perceive that another group will use up resources, and they will no longer be able to access those resources for themselves. These resources may be tangible, like money or material things or intangible like power or knowledge (Reik, Mania, & Gaertner, 2006). When resources are scarce, the group that feels threatened by the lack of resources finds itself motivated to compete for the resources in order to maintain its identity or to achieve its goals (Riek, Mania, & Gaertner, 2006). This competition promotes negative attitudes towards those in the group utilizing the resources (Aberson & Gaffney, 2008).

How does one determine which threat is applicable? Below are some characteristics that differentiate personal threats and intergroup threats.

No Threat

The absences of threat shows that an individual does not see any aspect of a situation as negative and does not react or act (Redmond, 2012). Without threat, individuals are not motivated to protect their resources. Instead they are motivated to engage in cooperative behaviors like gaining judgments that are more accurate of their group and contributing more efficient decision-making abilities (Redmond, 2012). These behaviors can be described as self-affirmation and group affirmation (Derks, Van Laar, & Ellemers, 2009). Self-affirmation is when the individual focuses on themselves rather than the group. Group affirmation is when the focus is on the group as a whole. Individuals from western cultures are more likely to engage in self-affirmation because in general, western cultures are more individualistic. Western cultures are more likely to focus on their personal identities rather than social identities (Redmond, 2012).

Integrated Threat Theory Components

There are several types of threats, which cause conflict between groups, including realistic threats, symbolic threats, intergroup anxiety and negative stereotyping. According to the Stephans, the Realistic and Symbolic threats both deal with threats to the interests of the group and "the degree [to which] you think your group's interests are being threatened, you will be prejudiced toward the other group" (Kendall, 1998). This differs from Intergroup Anxiety and Negative Stereotypes, which enhance perceived threats by cultivating negative expectations and opinions of other groups (Redmond, 2012).

Realistic Threats

These types of threats result from the perceptions held by the in-group, that the out-group "poses a risk to their safety, economy, politics, health or well-being" (Kendall, 1998). For example, when two groups within an organization are competing for the rights to complete a project for the president of the organization, and one group has more material resources than the other, the group with fewer resources will feel threatened because it feels there are barriers (the material resources), which will inhibit their ability to compete for the project.

Three studies were conducted to measure the antecedents of women's attitudes toward men using the integrated threat model. Four types of threats were hypothesized to produce negative attitudes toward men: (1) realistic threat based on threats to women's political and economic power, (2) symbolic threat based on value differences, (3) intergroup anxiety experienced during social interaction with out-group members, and (4) negative stereotypes of men. Negative contact was hypothesized to increase the perception of all four threats as well as to affect attitudes directly. The findings suggest that symbolic threat, intergroup anxiety, and negative contact are the strongest predictors of

negative attitudes toward men. Contrary to expectation, realistic threat may not be important to women's attitudes toward men.

The following graphic depicts the types of realistic threats as detailed by Kendall (1998).

Symbolic Threats

Symbolic threats refer to the beliefs and values of the group, which may be at risk. They primarily involve "perceived group differences in morals, values, standards, beliefs, and attitudes." (Oskamp, 2000, p.42) These threats affect the in-group paradigm, in that they affect the manner in which the group understands and interprets the world. The symbolic "threats arise, in part, because the in-group believes in the moral rightness of its system of values" (Oskamp, 2000, p.41). For example, if an in-group values a more protected approach to business, it might employ labor and materials purchased from its country of origin. As a result, a symbolic threat would involve competing firms that adopt a more global approach to business, especially if the costs of going global are substantially lower. This type of threat is found in many aspects of our lives; however, politics is the one that can be used to illustrate this threat the best. The different parties represent the different groups, and typically the major platforms the politicians run on are based on the morals, values and beliefs of that particular group.

The Consequences of Threats

Intergroup threats contribute to conflict because they influence behaviors, perceptions, and emotions. An appraisal of threat can evoke strong negative emotions, including that of fear, rage, anger, resentment, frustration, contempt and insecurity. In addition, perceptions of threat reduce emotional empathy for members of an out-group. The cognitive demands of dealing with threats causes a

person to be in a sense preoccupied, in turn leading to poor decision-making. Intergroup threats can also influence the in-group's perception of themselves in comparison to the out-group. This perception can lead to believing that the once "powerful" in-group has now become vulnerable. Negative intergroup perceptions and emotional biases contribute to the response in behavior towards a threat. The level of the behavioral response depends solely on the power of the threatened group. Higher power groups are not used to being threatened as their power generally isolates them from threat. Negative behavioral effects associated with these threats can impede peace and prolong reconciliation. When working in a group and threats and conflicts arise, communication comes to a screeching halt, and the group begins to lose focus of the goals that were initially set which can be detrimental. Communication is the key to all groups succeeding.

Intergroup Anxiety

Intergroup anxiety refers to the "uneasiness and awkwardness in the presence of out-group members because of uncertainty about how to behave towards them" (Riek, Mania, & Gaertner, 2006, p. 341). This component of Integrated Threat Theory can be considered the strongest threat, as it deals with high emotions between groups. "People feel personally threatened in intergroup interactions because they are concerned about negative outcomes for the self, such as being embarrassed, rejected, or ridiculed" (Oskamp, 2000, p.40). The more anxiety the in-group feels towards the out-group, the more the in-group will anticipate a negative reaction from the out-group. The emotional anxiety can even occur in circumstances when the in-group incorrectly predicts the out-groups response to in-group values. The increased expectation of a negative reaction leads to a higher degree of prejudice and bias between members of the conflicting groups (Riek,

Mania, & Gaertner, 2006). Incidents that reinforce the negative feelings between groups can prolong and exacerbate the anxiety felt by both groups.

Negative Stereotyping

In the last component of Integrated Threat Theory, the in-group develops negative stereotypes about the out-group. Negative Stereotyping occurs when an individual's "beliefs about the characteristics of groups and the traits of group members" create "expectancies about the type of interactions that can be anticipated with out-group members" (Fiske, Gilbert, & Lindzey 2010). These stereotypes, like any other stereotypes, are based upon attributes the in-group believes the out-group to have (Kendall, 1998). These negative stereotypes towards the out-group are further enhanced as the degree of negative attitudes the in-group has towards the out-group increases (Reik, Mania, & Gaertner, 2006). Two reviews (Nguyen & Ryan, 2008; Walton & Cohen, 2003) concluded that people in the absence of threat make less stereotypical decisions and react in less biased ways in line with Ellemers et al.'s (2002) accuracy prediction.

The theory of accuracy in the absence of threat is supported by the theory of stereotype lift/boost. Stereotype lift/boost occurs when individuals perform better when they are reminded of a positive stereotype about themselves and their group membership (Walton & Cohen, 2003; Wraga, Duncan, Jacobs, Helt, & Church, 2006). When the performance threat is removed because the person is reminded of their stereotypical abilities, they perform at a higher level than when the stereotype is absent. An example of this is described as an Asian student performing well on a math exam compared to others when reminded of their ethnicity before taking the exam (Redmond, 2010).

Research Support on Integrated Threat Theory

Integrated threat theory is fairly new, and therefore does not have the extensive research that other motivational theories have. However, the field of research is growing, and of particular interest is its relevance to present societal issues. The research is valuable as it helps us understand the cognitive processes behind people's attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors. Some of the research topics the theory can be applied to include:

- Religious intolerance
- Public attitudes toward immigration
- Racial profiling and stereotyping
- Public attitudes toward same gender relationships
- Support for feminist movements
- Diversity and a "national identity"
- Different motives in the workplace

Integrated Threat research has also shown its relevance with issues important to students. For example, one study looked at the cultural adjustment process required of students studying abroad (Fritz, M. V. et all 2008). This study examined the acculturation process of students living abroad and the effects of learning a new language, being separated from family and friends, and managing financial problems. The researchers looked at how Integrated Threat Theory addresses the issue of intergroup anxiety, where a student living abroad may experience feelings of being part of the "out" group.

Based on the study's findings, the researchers were able to recommend specific program elements that would help foreign students adjust better to a new culture. More importantly, the study found that cultural sensitivity is the most important part of a successful program. A program designed to help Europeans adjust to studying in the U.S. would not be as helpful for a program designed for Asian students for example. Therefore, instead of grouping all foreign students together in a program to help them adjust, programs should be designed for specific cultural groups to help them adjust to their new environment.

One way to improve relations within a group experiencing conflict is to apply the Intergroup Contact Hypothesis, which was first proposed by Gordon Allport in 1954. His hypothesis suggests that under certain circumstances, having contact with members of different groups can reduce prejudice and intergroup conflict. However, the contact situation must include four major conditions in order to see positive effects. These conditions include equal status, intergroup cooperation, common goals, and support by social and institutional authorities. Research conducted in 1961, 1984, 19787, and 2007 has found positive contact has reduced prejudice against blacks, gays, the elderly, and the disabled. (The Inquisitive Mind, 2013).

Condition	Meaning	Example	Evidence
Equal Status	Members of the contact situation should not have an unequal, hierarchical relationship.	Members should not have an employer/employee, or instructor/student relationship.	Evidence has documented that equal status is important both *prior* to (Brewer & Kramer, 1985) and *during* (Cohen & Lotan, 1995) the contact situation.
Cooperation	Members should work together in a non-competitive environment.	Students working together in a group project.	Aronson's 'jigsaw technique' structures classrooms so that students strive cooperatively (Aronson & Patnoe, 1967), and this technique has led to positive results in a variety of countries
Common Goals	Members must rely on each other to achieve their shared desired goal.	Members of a sports team.	hu and Griffey (1985) have shown the importance of common goals in interracial athletic teams who need to work together to achieve their goal.
Support by Social and Institutional Authorities	There should not be social or institutional authorities that explicitly or implicitly sanction contact, and there should be authorities that support positive contact.	There should not be official laws enforcing segregation.	Landis' (1984) work on the importance of institutional support in reducing prejudice in the military.

Strengths and Weaknesses of Integrated Threat Theory

The student abroad study mentioned above is one example of Integrated Threat Theory's application to individual, but most research findings have focused on intergroup relationships and have found analyzing group conflict to be the theory's main strength. The original theory was found to have some weaknesses over the course of many studies and meta-analysis. First, there were problems in conceptualizing the types of threat and second, the number of antecedents and consequences was too limited.

To address these weaknesses the theory was revised in 2002 (Stephan & Renfro, 2002). The new theory now makes a distinction between threats to the in-group as a whole, and threats to individual members of the in-group, known as personal threats. In addition to this distinction, the antecedents of the theory were expanded upon. In the original theory there were four antecedents of threat; which included strong identification with the in-group, negative personal contact with the out-group, a history of conflict between the groups, and substantial disparities in status between groups.

In the revised theory, the following antecedents were added to the list: relations between groups, which factor in the size of the out-group relative to the in-group within the society, difference variable, including social dominance orientation and self esteem for factoring, cultural dimensions as this is a new domain of variables that can influence perceived threats and includes concepts like, individualism / collectivism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance, and situational factors, which are variables that affect perceptions of threat like the setting, whether or not and how much the group interaction is structured or planned, and the nature of the interaction (cooperative vs. competitive).

The revised theory provides a much more comprehensive range of applications, but also requires more research to test and validate its concepts.

Application of Integrated Threat Theory in the Workplace

Within an organization at any given time, many groups exist and may be in conflict with each other. An example of groups in conflict can include managers' priorities differing from employees' priorities. There will always be threats in workplaces because people will always have differing motives, needs, and ideas.

Organizational knowledge of Integrated Threat Theory and its implications on group interaction can be essential in preventing or minimizing group conflict. When managers and employees have differing priorities, knowledge of the integrated threats and understanding why groups feel threatened, will allow organizational leaders to recognize the conflict and then work with the two groups to set common goals and priorities to eliminate the competing priorities.

Social Identity Theory Overview

Social Identity Theory focuses on the relationship between self-concept and group behavior (Hogg & Terry, 2001). This theory explains that different aspects of individuals' personalities motivate them at different times, and that motivation from identity will be decided by the certain situation that the individual is in by relying on personal or social identity (PSU World Campus, L.8, 2012, p.5). Henri Tajfel proposed the Social Identity Theory as a result of work he had conducted in the 1970's concerning "categorization and social perception, intergroup behavior, and the pursuit of social psychological understanding of the causes of prejudice and intergroup conflict" (Abrams & Hogg, 1999). Tajfel et al

(1971) attempted to identify the minimal conditions that would lead members of one group to discriminate in favor of the in-group to which they belonged and against another out-group.

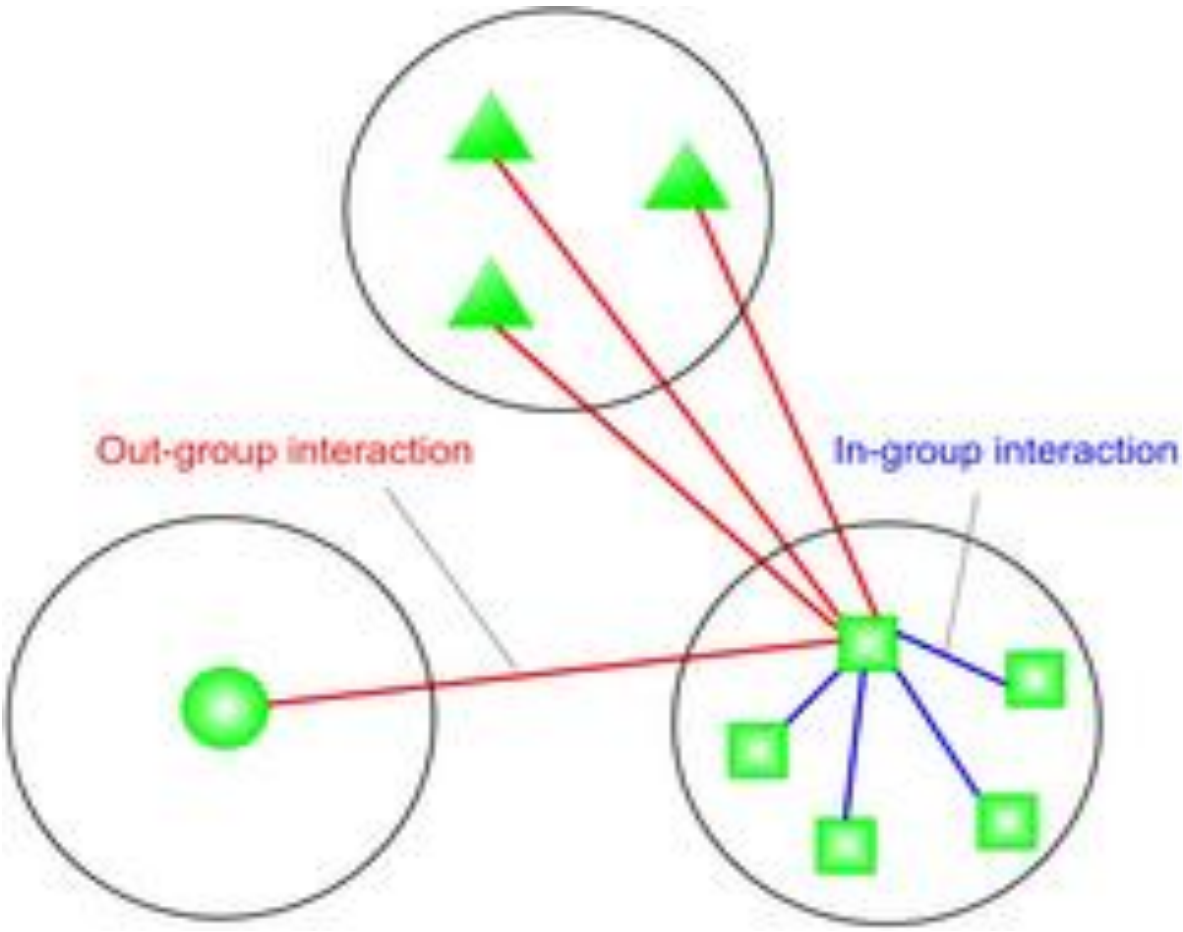
Tajfel believed individuals were inconsistent when it came to how they behaved when they related to others in an intergroup setting, opposed to an interpersonal setting and sought to explain the behavior of people in-group situations (Abrams & Terry, 2001). Tajfel identified three components of social identity: self-conceptualization, group self-esteem, and commitment to the group, which when met, led a person to feel connected to their in-group. As a result, all other groups become out-groups and are rivals for status and resources as well as a source for comparison. This can lead to discrimination in favor of the in-group or against other out-groups, as well as stereotyping and prejudice when a perceived threat occurs (Redmond, 2009).

In-Group Favoritism

An in-group can be described as the group of people with whom an individual categorizes himself/herself. From a biological perspective, this behavior is inherent which means that people tend to help members from their own group rather than those from another. People can and will interact with out-groups, but use different strategies with both. Members of an in-group feel a sense of commitment to the group and gain greater esteem from their sense of belonging to the group (Redmond, 2012). In-group favoritism primarily exists to protect the group as individuals and as a group. By giving special treatment to group members, resources may be unavailable to other groups, and that group can maintain a higher status. Typically the larger the in-group, the more power they can impose on others. The overall idea is that members of the in-group stick together and give each other preferential treatment on professionally, financially, or socially.

In-group favoritism can be explained through the average sports fan. Posten says "sports can work to increase self-esteem for a person by association and affiliation" (Posten, 1998, p.1). As a sports fan, you are extremely happy and proud after your team wins, as if you played the game yourself. Social Identity Theory also tells us that when our team loses, we will view that defeat positively so as to not defuse our self-esteem, since we have already identified with "our team" (Posten, 1998).

The graphic below illustrates the in-group and the out-group concept:



Out-Group Derogation

An out-group can be described as any group outside of an individual's in-group and a group that can be a potential rival/competitor for

resources (Redmond, 2012). Individuals in the out-group may be motivated to try and enter the in-group to gain access to limited or previously unavailable resources. Although once groups are formed, it can be hard to move to a new group and the person trying may face resentment from both groups. Members that are in the in-group can attempt to make members of the out-group look bad as to enhance their image and status.

Examples of In-Groups/Out-Groups

Northern Ireland: Catholics/Protestants

Rwanda: Hutus/ Tutsis

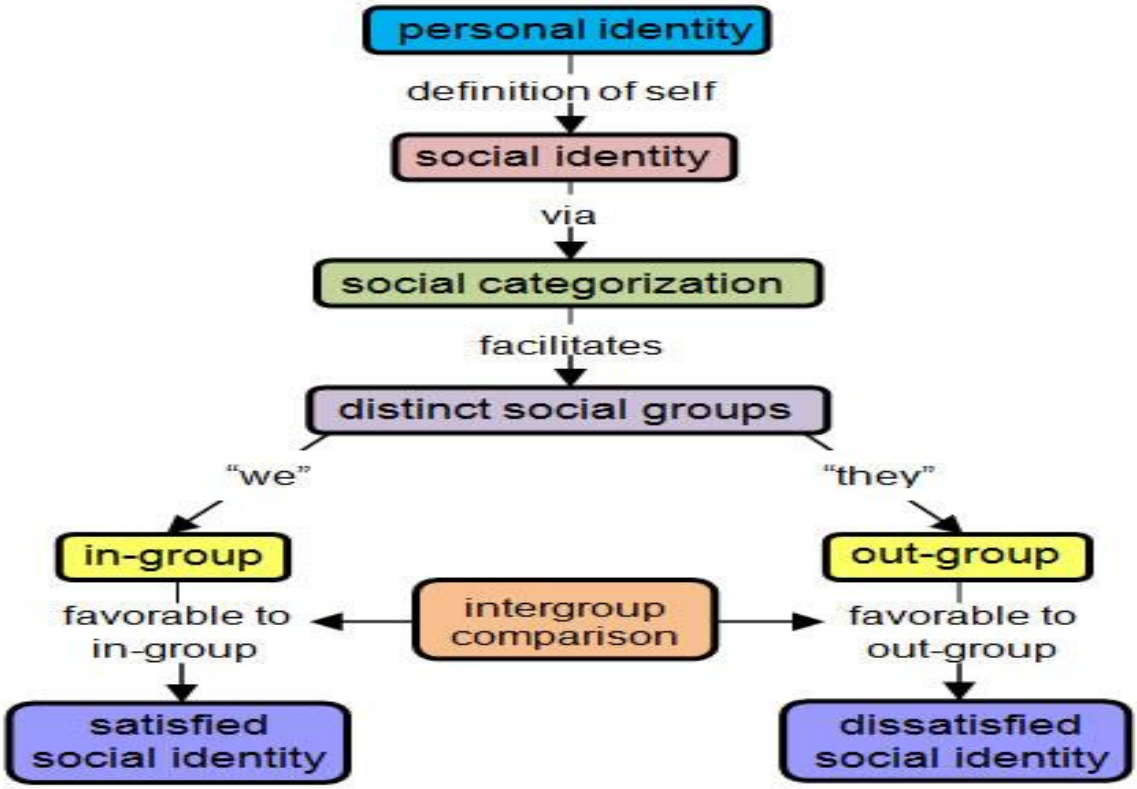
Yugoslavia: Bosnians/ Serbs

Germany: Jews/ Nazis

Gender: Male/ Female

Social Class: Upper / Lower Class

Social Identity Theory explains that every group has some type of social status that goes with its membership. This social status gives it value for the individuals that are members. Individual group members use the status from their membership in the group to gain and maintain self-esteem. The motivations to enhance self-esteem and gain status cause individuals to behave in ways that maintain the group and their memberships in the group. The better one's own group looks in comparison to other groups, the more status the group gains, and the more self-esteem it can provide for its members.



Social Identity Theory Components

According to Social Identity Theory, "social identity and intergroup behavior is guided by the pursuit of evaluative positive social identity through positive intergroup distinctiveness, which in turn is motivated by the need for positive self-esteem" (Hogg & Terry, 2001). In other words, their positive association with their in-group will affect a person's behavior when that association elevates their self-esteem and/or status. Furthermore, according to Michael Hogg (2006), social identity is motivated by self-enhancement and uncertainty reduction, which causes groups to "strive to be both better than and distinct from other groups" (pg. 120). Central to this theory are three components

identified by Tajfel: self-categorization, group self-esteem, and group commitment.

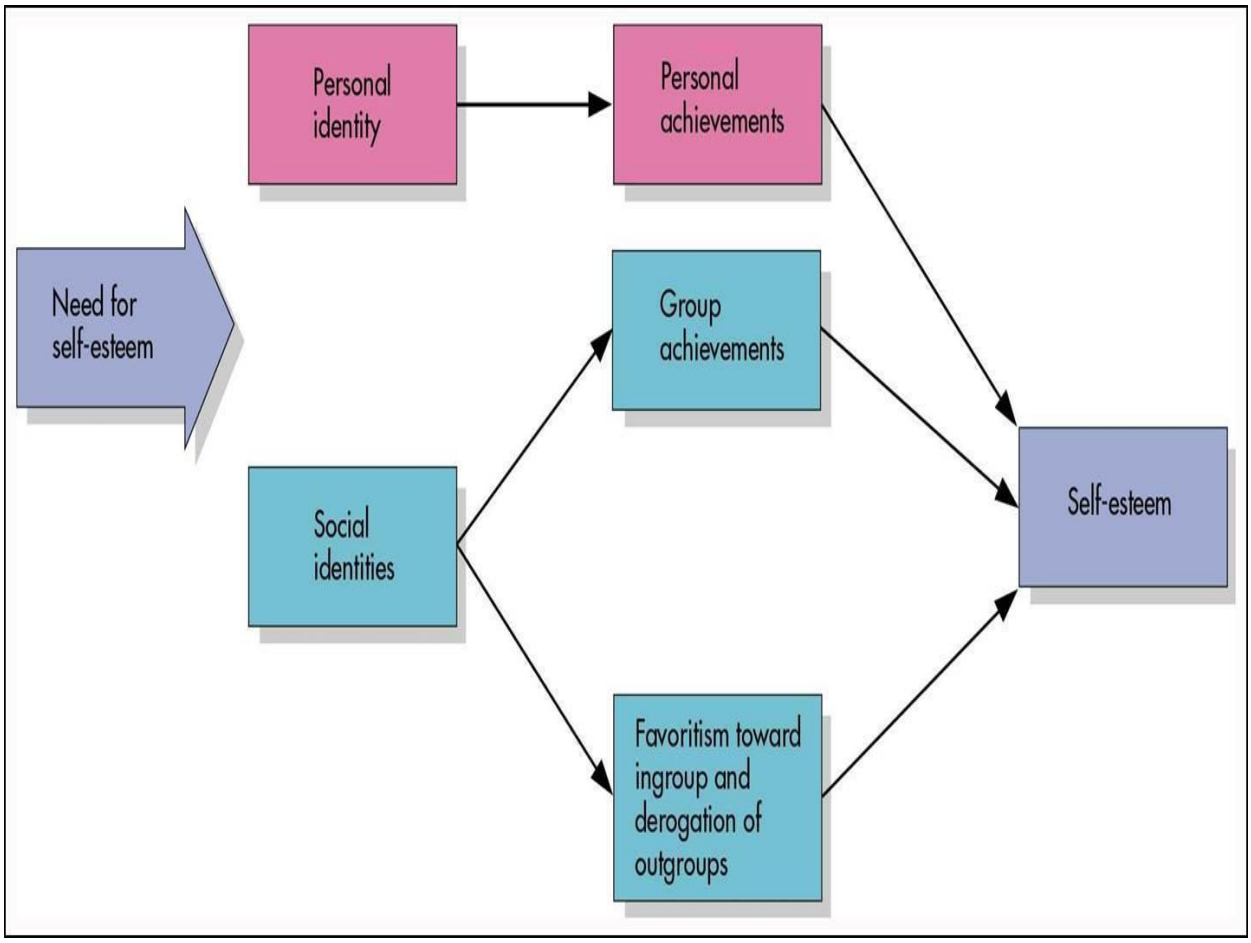
Personal Identity

Mayer, Greenbaum, Kuenzi, and Shteynberg (2009) state "personal identity consists of moral sensibility and conscience, and also a desire for achievement, mastery, and competence." Personal identity is the "combination of objective biosocial markers such as age, race, sex, and so on, and the personal life history of the individual" (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Weigert et al., 1986). Personal identity is the aspects of one's self that make them unique and help define that individual (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Individuals tend to be inconsistent when it comes to behavior in an social setting versus an individual setting. Social identity contrasts with personal identity because individuals will act differently in social settings based on their perceived status within the group.

Self-Categorization

Social Identity Theory demonstrates that "the self is reflexive in that it can take itself as an object, and can categorize, classify, or name itself in particular ways in relation to other social categories or classifications" (Stets & Burke, 2000). This Identification process is known as self-categorization and refers to a person's belief that they belong to a group. A person must categorize or identify him or herself as a member of a group in order to have their self-esteem elevated through association with the group. According to this theory, categorization "sharpens intergroup boundaries by producing group-distinctive stereotypical and normative perceptions and actions and assigns people, including self, to the contextually relevant category" (Hogg & Terry, 2001). In addition, self-categorization can reduce "uncertainty about themselves and others and about how they and

others may or ought to behave in specific social contexts" (Hogg & Terry, 2001). In other words, we are able to find out specifics about ourselves and others as well as the appropriate behaviors associated with the group(s) in which we belong. "The core of an identity is the categorization of the self as the occupant of a role" (Stets & Burke, 2000). By assigning roles to individuals that are self-categorized as being part of a group, individuals can derive meanings and expectations associated with their roles, and as a result, are able to create value-based standards that motivate and guide what is perceived to be appropriate behavior.



Group Self-Esteem

Group self-esteem refers to the positive self-esteem or self-identity gained through membership in a group. "The relationship between intergroup differentiation and self-esteem should be assessed by using a measure of esteem at the level of the group or collective, rather than by using measures that address personal self-esteem" (De Cremer, Van Vugt, & Sharp,1999). In order to categorize one's self as a member of a group, membership in the group must hold some value for the person such as improvement in their status or positive personal identity through the association with the group. An example of this would be how memberships in sororities and fraternities constitute high social status among peers, and lifelong association with these groups produces additional personal identity benefits, including self-esteem.

The theory suggests that people have a need to "see themselves in a positive light in relation to relevant others" (Hogg & Terry, 2001) and that this can be achieved in a group context through "making comparisons between in-group and relevant out-groups in ways that favor the in-group" (Hogg & Terry, 2001). "The better one's group looks in comparison to other groups, the more status the group gains, and the more self-esteem it can provide for its members" (Morton, Postmes, Haslam, & Hornsey, 2009; Tajifel & Turner, 1979, 1986). "Self esteem and status are the main reasons that social identity is proposed to motivate individuals. But also remember that a person must also first describe him or herself as part of the group (self-categorization) and want to be part of the group (commitment)" (Redmond, 2010).

Social Identity Theory

Henri Tajfel's greatest contribution to psychology was social identity theory. Social identity is a person’s sense of who they are based on their group membership(s).

Tajfel (1979) proposed that the groups (e.g. social class, family, football team etc.) which people belonged to were an important source of pride and self-esteem. Groups give us a sense of social identity: a sense of belonging to the social world.

We divided the world into “them” and “us” based through a process of social categorization (i.e. we put people into social groups).

Henri Tajfel proposed that stereotyping (i.e. putting people into groups and categories) is based on a normal cognitive process: the tendency to group things together. In doing so we tend to exaggerate:

1. the differences between groups

2. the similarities of things in the same group.

This is known as in-group (us) and out-group (them). The central hypothesis of social identity theory is that group members of an in-group will seek to find negative aspects of an out-group, thus enhancing their self-image.

Prejudiced views between cultures may result in racism; in its extreme forms, racism may result in genocide, such as occurred in Germany with the Jews, in Rwanda between the Hutus and Tutsis and, more recently, in the former Yugoslavia between the Bosnians and Serbs.

Examples of In-groups and Out-groups

o Northern Ireland: Catholics – Protestants

o Rwanda: Hutus and Tutsis

o Yugoslavia: the Bosnians and Serbs

o Germany: Jews and the Nazis

o Politics: Labor and the Conservatives

o Football: Liverpool and Man Utd

o Gender: Males and Females

o Social Class: Middle and Working Classes

Social Identity Theory Stages

Tajfel and Turner (1979) proposed that there are three mental processes involved in evaluating others as "us" or "them" (i.e. "in-group" and "out-group". These take place in a particular order.

Categorization

The first is categorization. We categorize objects in order to understand them and identify them. In a very similar way we categorize people (including ourselves) in order to understand the social environment. We use social categories like black, white, Australian, Christian, Muslim, student, and bus driver because they are useful.

If we can assign people to a category then that tells us things about those people, and as we saw with the bus driver example, we couldn't function in a normal manner without using these categories; i.e. in the context of the bus.

Similarly, we find out things about ourselves by knowing what categories we belong to. We define appropriate behavior by reference to the norms of groups we belong to, but you can only do this if you can tell who belongs to your group. An individual can belong to many different groups.

Social Identification

In the second stage, social identification, we adopt the identity of the group we have categorized ourselves as belonging to.

If for example you have categorized yourself as a student, the chances are you will adopt the identity of a student and begin to act in the ways you believe students act (and conform to the norms of the group).

There will be an emotional significance to your identification with a group, and your self-esteem will become bound up with group membership.

Social Comparison

The final stage is social comparison. Once we have categorized ourselves as part of a group and have identified with that group we then tend to compare that group with other groups. If our self-esteem is to be maintained our group needs to compare favorably with other groups.

This is critical to understanding prejudice, because once two groups identify themselves as rivals, they are forced to compete in order for the members to maintain their self-esteem.

Competition and hostility between groups is thus not only a matter of competing for resources (like in Sherif's Robbers Cave) like jobs but also the result of competing identities.

Relative Deprivation and Deprivation Theory

Relative deprivation is formally defined as an actual or perceived lack of resources required to maintain the quality of life (e.g. diet, activities, material possessions) to which various socioeconomic groups or individuals within those groups have grown accustomed, or are considered to be the accepted norm within the group.

Key Takeaways

- Relative deprivation is the lack of resources (e.g. money, rights, social equality) necessary to maintain the quality of life considered typical within a given socioeconomic group.
- Relative deprivation often contributes to the rise of social change movements, such as the U.S. Civil Rights Movement.
- Absolute deprivation or absolute poverty is a potentially life-threatening situation that occurs when income falls below a level adequate to maintain food and shelter.

In simpler terms, relative deprivation is a feeling that you are generally "worse off" than the people you associate with and compare yourself to. For example, when you can only afford a compact economy car but your co-worker, while getting the same salary as you, drives a fancy luxury sedan, you may feel relatively deprived.

Relative Deprivation Theory Definition

As defined by social theorists and political scientists, relative deprivation theory suggests that people who feel they are being deprived of something considered essential in their society (e.g. money, rights, political voice, status) will organize or join social movements dedicated to obtaining the things of which they feel deprived. For example, relative deprivation has been cited as one of the causes of the U.S. Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s, which was rooted in Black Americans' struggle to gain social and legal equality with white Americans. Similarly, many gay people joined the same-sex marriage movement in order to acquire the same legal recognition of their marriages enjoyed by straight people.

In some cases, relative deprivation has been cited as a factor driving incidents of social disorder like rioting, looting, terrorism, and civil wars. In this nature, social movements and their associated disorderly acts

can often be attributed to the grievances of people who feel they are being denied resources to which they are entitled.

Relative Deprivation Theory History

Development of the concept of relative deprivation is often attributed to American sociologist Robert K. Merton, whose study of American soldiers during World War II revealed that soldiers in the Military Police were far less satisfied with their opportunities for promotion than regular GIs.

In proposing one the first formal definitions of relative deprivation, British statesman and sociologist Walter Runciman listed four required conditions:

- A person does not have something.
- That person knows other people who have the thing.
- That person wants to have the thing.
- That person believes they have a reasonable chance of getting the thing.

Runciman also drew a distinction between "egoistic" and "fraternalistic" relative deprivation. According to Runciman, egoistic relative deprivation is driven by an **individual's** feelings of being treated unfairly compared to others in their group. For example, an employee who feels they should have gotten a promotion that went to another employee may feel egoistically relatively deprived. Fraternalistic relative deprivation is more often associated with **massive group social movements** like the Civil Rights Movement.

Relative Versus Absolute Deprivation

Relative deprivation has a counterpart: absolute deprivation. Both of these are measures of poverty in a given country.

Absolute deprivation describes a condition in which household income falls below a level needed to maintain the basic necessities of life, such as food and shelter.

Meanwhile, relative deprivation describes a level of poverty at which household income drops to a certain percentage below the country's median income. For example, a country's level of relative poverty could be set at 50 percent of its median income.

Absolute poverty can threaten one's very survival, while relative poverty may not but is likely to limit one's ability to participate fully in their society. In 2015, the World Bank Group set the worldwide absolute poverty level at $1.90 per day per person based on purchasing power parities (PPP) rates.

Critiques of Relative Deprivation Theory

Critics of relative deprivation theory have argued that it fails to explain why some people who, though deprived of rights or resources, fail to take part in social movements meant to attain those things. During the Civil Rights Movement, for example, Black people who refused to participate in the movement were derisively referred to as "Uncle Toms" by other Black people in reference to the excessively obedient enslaved person depicted in Harriet Beecher Stowe's 1852 novel "Uncle Tom's Cabin."

However, proponents of relative deprivation theory argue that many of these people simply want to avoid the conflicts and life difficulties they might encounter by joining the movement with no guarantee of a better life as a result.

Additionally, relative deprivation theory does not account for people who take part in movements that do not benefit them directly. Some examples include the animal rights movement, straight and cis-

gendered people who march alongside LGBTQ+ activists, and wealthy people who demonstrate against policies that perpetuate poverty or income inequality. In these cases, participants are believed to act more out of a sense of empathy or sympathy than feelings of relative deprivation.

Realistic Conflict Theory

Definition and Examples of Realistic Conflict Theory

The **realistic conflict theory** states that whenever there are two or more groups that are seeking the same limited resources, this will lead to conflict, negative stereotypes and beliefs, and discrimination between the groups. The conflict can lead to increasing animosity toward the groups and can cause an ongoing feud to develop.

Conversely, conflict, negative stereotypes and beliefs, and discrimination between groups can potentially be reduced in situations where two or more groups are seeking to obtain some superordinate goals. **Superordinate goals** are mutually-desirable goals that cannot be obtained without the participation of two or more groups.

Because of its emphasis on group behaviors and conflict, the realistic conflict theory is also referred to as the **realistic group conflict theory**.

The Robber's Cave Experiment

One of the earliest examples of realistic conflict theory is the Robber's Cave experiment conducted by social psychologist Muzafer Sherif in the 1950s. Sherif conducted a field experiment at Robber's Cave State Park in Oklahoma using 22 adolescent males. Each of the 22 participants was 12 years old, came from a 2-parent home, and was from a white middle-class background. None of the participants knew each other before the experiment. Sherif divided the males into two separate groups: the Eagles and the Rattlers.

Neither of the groups was aware of the other's existence during the first stage of the experiment. During the first stage, the participants were involved in several activities with their group members such as hiking and swimming. These activities allowed participants to form attachments with their group and create their own group culture, norms, and expectations.

Once the participants had become attached to their own groups, Sherif introduced the groups to each other and arranged for competitive games and other conflicts between the groups. For example, one of the competitive games required the Eagles and the Rattlers to play each other in a baseball game. The winning group received a trophy and individual medals for the group members, while the losing group received nothing.

Sherif began to notice that the groups were calling each other names and teasing each other. However, as the competitive games continued, the groups became increasingly hostile. For example, the Eagles set the Rattlers' flag on fire and the Rattlers destroyed the Eagles' cabin. Eventually, the groups became so hostile with one another that they had to be physically separated.

Remember that the participants were 22 well-adjusted males. They were not criminals, nor did they have a history of aggressive or destructive behavior. However, once conflict and competition were introduced, their behaviors became discriminatory and hostile.

Other Examples of Realistic Conflict Theory

Suppose that the Eagles and Rattlers wanted to go on a hiking trip. The Eagles had all of the required hiking gear and the Rattlers had the required hiking maps and boots. The two groups would have to share their resources and cooperate with each other in order to make the

hiking trip happen - a superordinate goal. Without cooperation, neither group would be able to go on the hiking trip. This cooperation might lead to positive communication between the two groups and could repair the relationship between the two.

Activity 1:

You read about the Robber's Cave experiment in the lesson. In this experiment, both groups consisted of 12-year-old Caucasian boys. The researcher was able to overcome inter-group conflict by presenting a superordinate goal. What do you think would happen if the groups were not equivalent to begin with? What if one group was boys and the other group was girls? What if one group was Hispanic teenagers and the other group was African American teenagers? Would the result have been the same as it was with two groups of Caucasian boys? Would a superordinate goal bring the groups together successfully as it did in the experiment? Write a two to three paragraph opinion paper discussing these issues.

Activity 2:

Think of a time that you have had to compete with a friend for a limited resource. For example, perhaps you competed for first place in a gymnastics or tennis competition. Did this competition affect your friendship? Did you disparage the other person in your head in terms of ability or personality? How were you able to get your friendship back on track after one person won the limited resource and the other person lost? Write a journal entry reflecting on your experience with limited resources against a friend.

Activity 3:

The world is full of groups that are different in demonstrable ways. People have different skin colors, different religions, different languages, and different modes of dress. Prejudice and discrimination exist often due to a perceived competition for resources, or simply because sometimes people think that "different" means "wrong" or "worse." Do you think it is possible for a superordinate goal to bring all these disparate people together such that they feel unified in achieving a goal? To use an unrealistic and extreme example, what if aliens landed on earth, intending to harm humans? Would humans all come together to work to defeat the aliens, eliminating discrimination and prejudice, or is the superordinate goal not powerful enough to overcome deeply rooted differences between people? Write an essay describing the power or superordinate goals, or lack thereof, when it comes to making diverse people feel on the same "side."

Balance Theory

Balance Theory Definition

Balance theory describes the structure of people's opinions about other individuals and objects as well as the perceived relation between them. The central notion of balance theory is that certain structures between individuals and objects are balanced, whereas other structures are imbalanced, and that balanced structures are generally preferred over imbalanced structures. Specifically, balance theory claims that unbalanced structures are associated with an uncomfortable feeling of negative affect, and that this negative feeling leads people to strive for balanced structures and to avoid imbalanced structures. An example for a balanced structure is when your best friend also likes your favorite rock band; an example for an imbalanced structure is when your best friend dislikes your favorite rock band. According to balance theory, the

first case makes you feel good, whereas the second case creates an uncomfortable tension.

Theoretical Assumptions

The original formulation of balance theory was designed to describe the pattern of relations between three individuals. Such relation patterns between three objects or individuals are often referred to as “triadic” relations. From a general perspective, a triadic relation between three individuals includes (a) the relation between a first person A and a second person O, (b) the relation between the second person O and a third person X, and (c) the relation between the first person A and the third person X (also described as A-O-X triad). In addition, it is assumed that the specific relations between two individuals can be positive (i.e., the two individuals like each other) or negative (i.e., the two individuals dislike each other). According to balance theory, a triad is balanced when it includes either no or an even number of negative relations. In contrast, a triad is imbalanced when it includes an odd number of negative relations. For example, the resulting triad of relations between Peter, John, and Paul would be balanced if (a) Peter likes John, John likes Paul, and Peter likes Paul; (b) Peter likes John, John dislikes Paul, and Peter dislikes Paul; (c) Peter dislikes John, John likes Paul, and Peter dislikes Paul; or (d) Peter dislikes John, John dislikes Paul, and Peter likes Paul. However, the resulting triad would be imbalanced if (a) Peter dislikes John, John likes Paul, and Peter likes Paul; (b) Peter likes John, John dislikes Paul, and Peter likes Paul; (c) Peter likes John, John likes Paul, and Peter dislikes Paul; or (d) Peter dislikes John, John dislikes Paul, and Peter dislikes Paul.

Even though balance theory was originally developed to explain patterns of interpersonal relations, it has also been applied to study attitudes and opinions about objects. For example, a triad including

Sarah, Alice, and country music would be balanced if Sarah likes Alice, Alice likes country music, and Sarah also likes country music. However, the resulting triad would be imbalanced if Sarah likes Alice, Alice likes country music, but Sarah dislikes country music.

Over and above these assumptions for personal sentiments, balance theory assumes that a positive relation can also result from the perception that two objects or individuals somehow belong together. Conversely, a negative relation can result from the perception that two objects or individuals do not belong together. Such kinds of relations are typically called "unit relations." Positive unit relations can result from any kind of closeness, similarity, or proximity, such as membership in the same soccer team, similar hair style, or same ethnic background. In contrast, negative unit relations can result from distance, dissimilarity, or distinctness, such as membership in different soccer teams, different hair style, or different ethnic background.

Evidence

The distinction between balanced and imbalanced triads has been shown to have important implications for a variety of different domains. First, research has shown that the uncomfortable feeling associated with imbalanced patterns influences the formation of new attitudes. Specifically, it has been demonstrated that newly formed attitudes usually complete triadic relations in a manner such that the resulting triad is balanced rather than imbalanced. For example, if Sarah learns that a yet unknown individual is liked by her friend Alice, Sarah will form a positive attitude toward this individual. However, if Sarah learns that the same individual is disliked by her friend Alice, Sarah will form a negative attitude toward this individual.

Second, research has demonstrated a general superiority in memory for balanced as compared to imbalanced information. For instance, people

show higher accuracy in recalling balanced patterns such as “Peter likes John, John dislikes Paul, and Peter dislikes Paul.” However, people show lower accuracy in recalling imbalanced patterns such as “Peter likes John, John dislikes Paul, and Peter likes Paul.” This difference in memory performance is even more pronounced when the triad includes the perceiver (e.g., “I like John, John dislikes Paul, and I dislike Paul”).

Third, balance principles have been shown to have important implications for people’s identity and the way people feel about themselves. Research in this area has shown that mental associations between the self and a particular group, evaluations of this group, and personal evaluations of oneself typically show patterns that can be described as balanced rather than imbalanced. For instance, if a Black person has a strong mental association between the self and the category Black, and in addition shows a positive evaluation of the category Black, this person will also exhibit a positive self-evaluation (i.e., “I’m Black, Black is good, therefore I’m good”). However, if a Black person has a strong mental association between the self and the category Black, but shows a negative evaluation of the category Black, this person will likely exhibit a negative self-evaluation (i.e., “I’m Black, Black is bad, therefore I’m bad”). According to balance theory, this transfer of evaluations is due to the inherent “unit” between the self and the category Black.

Adams’ Equity Theory

Adams' Equity Theory calls for a fair balance to be struck between an employee's inputs (hard work, skill level, acceptance, enthusiasm, and so on) and an employee's outputs (salary, benefits, intangibles such as recognition, and so on).

According to the theory, finding this fair balance serves to ensure a strong and productive relationship is achieved with the employee, with the overall result being contented, motivated employees.

Understanding the Theory

Adams' Equity Theory is named for John Stacey Adams, a workplace and behavioral psychologist, who developed his **job motivation theory** in 1963. Much like many of the more prevalent theories of motivation (such as **Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs** and **Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory**), Adams' Equity Theory acknowledges that subtle and variable factors affect an employee's assessment and perception of their relationship with their work and their employer.

The theory is built-on the belief that employees become de-motivated, both in relation to their job and their employer, if they feel as though their inputs are greater than the outputs. Employees can be expected to respond to this is different ways, including de-motivation (generally to the extent the employee perceives the disparity between the inputs and the outputs exist), reduced effort, becoming disgruntled, or, in more extreme cases, perhaps even disruptive.

How to Apply the Adams' Equity Theory

It is important to also consider the Adams' Equity Theory factors when striving to improve an employee's job satisfaction, motivation level, etc., and what can be done to promote higher levels of each.

To do this, consider the balance or imbalance that currently exists between your employee's inputs and outputs, as follows:

Inputs typically include:

- Effort.
- Loyalty.

- Hard work.
- Commitment.
- Skill.
- Ability.
- Adaptability.
- Flexibility.
- Acceptance of others.
- Determination.
- Enthusiasm.
- Trust in superiors.
- Support of colleagues.
- Personal sacrifice.

Outputs typically include:

- Financial rewards (such as salary, benefits, perks).
- Intangibles that typically include:
    - Recognition.
    - Reputation.
    - Responsibility.
    - Sense of achievement.
    - Praise.
    - Stimulus.
    - Sense of advancement/growth.

- Job security.

While obviously many of these points can't be quantified and perfectly compared, the theory argues that managers should seek to find a fair balance between the inputs that an employee gives, and the outputs received.

And according to the theory, employees should be content where they perceive these to be in balance.

Tip:

This is similar to Frederick Herzberg's **Motivation/Hygiene Theory**. While Adams' Equity Theory obviously has a strong element of truth to it, it's probably fair to say that Herzberg's Motivation/Hygiene Theory has greater motivational significance.

Key Points

Much like the five levels of needs determined by Maslow and the two factors of motivation as classified by Herzberg (intrinsic and extrinsic), the Adams' Equity Theory of motivation states that positive outcomes and high levels of motivation can be expected only when employees perceive their treatment to be fair. An employee's perception of this may include many factors (see outputs above). The idea behind Adams' Equity Theory is to strike a healthy balance here, with outputs on one side of the scale; inputs on the other – both weighing in a way that seems reasonably equal.

If the balance lies too far in favor of the employer, some employees may work to bring balance between inputs and outputs on their own, by asking for more compensation or recognition. Others will be demotivated, and still others will seek alternative employment.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory proposes that social behavior is the result of an exchange process. The purpose of this exchange is to maximize benefits and minimize costs. According to this theory, developed by sociologist George Homans, people weigh the potential benefits and risks of social relationships. When the risks outweigh the rewards, people will terminate or abandon that relationship.

Most relationships are made up of a certain amount of give-and-take, but this does not mean that they are always equal. Social exchange suggests that it is the valuing of the benefits and costs of each relationship that determine whether or not we choose to continue a social association.

Costs vs. Benefits

Costs involve things that you see as negatives such as having to put money, time, and effort into a relationship. For example, if you have a friend that always has to borrow money from you, then this would be seen as a high cost.

The benefits are things that you get out of the relationship such as fun, friendship, companionship, and social support. Your friend might be a bit of a freeloader, but bring a lot of fun and excitement to your life. As you are determining the value of the friendship, you might decide that the benefits outweigh the potential costs.

Social exchange theory suggests that we essentially take the benefits and subtract the costs in order to determine how much a relationship is worth. Positive relationships are those in which the benefits outweigh the costs while negative relationships occur when the costs are greater than the benefits.

Expectations and Comparison Levels

Cost-benefit analysis plays a major role in the social exchange process, but so do expectations. As people weigh benefits against the costs, they do so by establishing a comparison level that is often influenced by past experiences. If you have always had poor friendships, your comparison levels at the start of a relationship will be lower than a person who has always had supportive and caring friends.

For example, if your previous romantic partner showered you with displays of affection, your comparison level for your next relationship is going to be quite high when it comes to affection. If your next romantic partner tends to be more reserved and less emotional, that person might not measure up to your expectations.

Evaluating the Alternatives

Another aspect of the social exchange process involves looking at the possible alternatives. After analyzing the costs and benefits and contrasting these against your comparison levels, you might start to look at possible alternatives.

The relationship might not measure up to your comparison levels, but as you survey the potential alternatives, you might determine that the relationship is still better than anything else that is available. As a result, you might go back and reassess the relationship in terms of what may now be a somewhat lower comparison level.

The Honeymoon Phase

The length of a friendship or romance can also play a role in the social exchange process. During the early weeks or months of a relationship, often referred to as the "honeymoon phase," people are more likely to ignore the social exchange balance. Things that would normally be viewed as high cost are dismissed, ignored, or minimized, while potential benefits are often exaggerated.

When this honeymoon period finally comes to an end, there will often be a gradual evaluation of the exchange balance. Downsides will become more apparent and benefits will start to be seen more realistically. This recalibration of the exchange balance might also lead to the termination of the relationship if the balance is tipped too far toward the negative side.

Applied Social Psychology

Applied Social Psychology Definition

Applied social psychology can be defined as using social psychological theories, principles, research findings, and experimental methods to understand social issues and to offer real-world solutions for a variety of social problems. As a discipline, applied social psychology functions on the premise that social problems are, at their heart, caused by human behavior. To understand and change these problem behaviors, applied social psychologists conduct a scientific examination of individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors as they pertain to a variety of social influences. Through their research, applied social psychologists hope to offer practical suggestions for improving human social behavior in areas ranging from workplace productivity to safer sexual activity.

Applied Social Psychology History and Background

While an earlier generation of psychologists had been predominantly interested in the structure and measurement of mental tasks in the laboratory, the 20th century saw a substantial increase in researchers advocating the application of theories outside the laboratory. In 1903, experimental psychologist Walter Dill Scott wrote The Theory and Practice of Advertising, suggesting that consumer habits could be

influenced by emotional suggestions. In 1908, psychologist Hugo Munsterberg defined applied psychology as research adjusted to fit the problems encountered in everyday life. In works on industrial psychology, advertising, and education, Munsterberg, Scott, and others began exploring the possibilities of an applied psychology. In 1917, psychologist G. S. Hall founded the Journal of Applied Psychology to further explore the potential of this new field.

By the 1920s, there was an undeniable enthusiasm for applied research in the psychological community, despite its reputation as an "undignified" pursuit. In addition to the new challenges it presented, applied research was also attractive because private corporations often provided better salaries than did academic institutions. John B. Watson, former American Psychological Association president and one of the founders of modern behaviorism, began a successful career at the J. Walter Thompson advertising firm after being fired from Johns Hopkins University in 1920. Watson was able to put psychological principles into practice with such advertising industry standards as expert and celebrity testimonials and focus group research. He was promoted to vice president in only 4 years and was eventually honored for his achievements by the American Psychological Association. Even those psychologists who stayed in traditional laboratories found that it was easier to justify lab materials and costs if their research had the potential for application.

The work of Kurt Lewin (1840-1947) marks the beginning of modern applied social psychology. Lewin, best known for his field theory suggesting that behavior is a function of an individual's personality and his or her environment, proposed that social psychologists should engage in what he called action research. A social activist himself, Lewin believed that social issues should inspire social psychological research. This research could then be used to provide solutions for

social problems. Lewin's action research sought to define a social problem, recommend countermeasures, and test the effectiveness of those countermeasures through community involvement, surveys, case studies, and controlled experiments. To this end, Lewin formed several organizations to engage in action research, including the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, the Research Center for Group Dynamics, the Commission on Community Interrelations, and the National Training Laboratories. These groups studied interracial housing, ingroup loyalty, and leadership styles, establishing Lewin as one of the foremost proponents of combined applied and theoretical social psychology in the history of psychology.

As social psychology sought greater acceptance as a science in the 1950s and 1960s, action research in the field became less popular and was replaced by basic academic social psychology. It was not until the late 1960s and 1970s, while American society was undergoing radical transformations as a result of the civil rights movement, the Vietnam War, and the Watergate scandal, that social psychologists returned to the field in an attempt to understand and explain what was happening around them. Through the 1970s and 1980s, social psychologists debated if applied research could inform public policy. If so, many felt that the researchers themselves must present and explain their findings to policymakers or risk dangerous misinterpretation of their work.

Applied social psychology has been growing in prestige since the 1980s. With applications ranging from improving the criminal justice system to informing education and health issues, the last few decades have seen substantial increases in nontraditional funding sources. While applied social psychological research continues within academic institutions, private and government grants, as well as full-time research positions within large corporations, have allowed researchers the flexibility and opportunity to study a diverse array of social phenomena.

Unique Features of Applied Social Psychology

While research in basic social psychology often begins with scientific curiosity, work in applied social psychology typically starts with the identification of a specific social problem, such as teen pregnancy or hate crimes. Applied social psychologists seek to understand and treat these social maladies through the application of the theories and methods of social psychology. While basic social psychologists attempt to isolate the causal relationships between a small number of specific variables that can be carefully controlled in the lab, applied social psychologists work to identify and predict large-scale effects that can be used to design and implement social programs. Real social issues rarely involve only one or two psychological variables. Therefore, it is often useful for applied social psychologists to consider broad combinations of psychological principles when attempting to understand a social issue. It is also common for applied social psychologists to adopt an interdisciplinary approach to their work, incorporating economic, sociological, and political perspectives.

Within the laboratory, social psychologists are generally able to conduct precise and carefully controlled experimental manipulations to test their hypotheses. Within communities and businesses, applied researchers often work in unpredictable and unrestricted environments, relying on less-precise research techniques such as surveys, self-reports, and rough “before and after” evaluations. Often at the mercy of corporate or government sponsors, applied social psychologists work under program deadlines, funding restrictions, and political pressures.

While laboratory effects need to reach statistical significance to support the hypothesis of the experimenter, implemented social programs need to show effects that are not only statistically significant but also large

enough to have real-world consequences for the program's sponsor. Applied social psychologists must also make quantitative estimates when designing an experimental social program to show that the program's benefits will ultimately outweigh the initial costs.

Working In Applied Social Psychology

To list all the areas to which social psychology is currently being applied would be almost impossible. Broadly, applied social psychologists are active in studying and improving educational programs, industrial and organizational productivity, environmental and health care issues, justice system reform, and all types of mass communication, including advertising, public relations, and politics.

Some applied social psychologists conduct research for academic institutions, some for private foundations and corporations, and some for government organizations. Some evaluate the success or failure of a specific experimental social program while others work as internal consultants to government agencies and businesses, providing feedback on a variety of projects. Some applied social psychologists give policy advice to corporate or government managers from outside an organization while still others become managers themselves. Finally, some applied social psychologists become full-time advocates for social change, working with activist groups rather than from inside a government or corporate body.

Criticisms of Applied Social Psychology

Criticisms of applied social psychology come from psychologists as well as from policymakers. Laboratory psychologists question the methodology behind much of the applied social research. With no control groups, few experimental manipulations, and a heavy reliance on self-report and correlation, can applied social psychology really

contribute to social psychological theories? After all, a successful social program will need to be tailored differently to every community in which it is implemented. Policymakers question whether the effects of experimental social programs are large enough (or cheap enough) to be widely implemented. Others argue that the large-scale behavior modification implied in some social psychological programs is unethical. Ultimately, there is a genuine tradeoff between conducting basic and applied social psychological research. In basic studies, researchers seek general principles that may not directly apply to more complicated real-world problems; in applied studies, researchers address specific problems, yet their conclusions may fail to generalize to other situations.

While both groups have valid critiques of an admittedly murky field, it is important to emphasize that applied social psychologists are actively engaged in the scientific study of social issues. While this problem-oriented approach does take some emphasis away from theory building, the plethora of field observations and unique program implementations essential to applied research will only serve to strengthen and refine current and future social psychological theories. Although the oversimplification of research findings could lead to the improper implementation of social programs, applied social psychologists seek to prevent such use by taking an active role in designing socially responsible policy.

A final issue to note is that the implied divide between applied and basic research ignores the contributions that basic social psychologists often make to areas of application. While applied social psychology refers to research with a problem-oriented focus, it is much more difficult to define who meets the definition of an applied social psychologist. Many psychologists primarily focused on basic laboratory research are also actively involved in the Society for the Psychological

Study of Social Issues and other organizations committed to the application of social psychological principles.

Territoriality Definition

Territoriality is a pattern of attitudes and behavior held by a person or group that is based on perceived, attempted, or actual control of a physical space, object, or idea, which may involve habitual occupation, defense, personalization, and marking of the territory. Marking means placing an object or substance in a space to indicate one's territorial intentions. Cafeteria diners leave coats or books on a chair or table. Prospectors stake claims. Personalization means marking in a manner that indicates one's identity. Many employees decorate their workspaces with pictures and mementoes. Some car owners purchase vanity license plates.

Territoriality usually is associated with the possession of some physical space, but it can also involve such processes as dominance, control, conflict, security, claim staking, vigilance, and identity. If a territory is important to a person, his or her sense of identity may be closely tied to it. Although it is sometimes associated with aggression, territoriality actually is much more responsible for the smooth operation of society because most people, most of the time, respect the territories of others.

Types of Territories

Territoriality is extremely widespread. Once you recognize them, the signs of human territoriality are everywhere: books spread out on a cafeteria table to save a place, nameplates, fences, locks, no-trespassing signs, even copyright notices. There are billions of

territories in the world; some are large, others small, some are nested within others (such as a person's "own" chair within a home), and some are shared.

Primary territories are spaces owned by individuals or primary groups, controlled on a relatively permanent basis by them and central to their daily lives. Examples include your bedroom or a family's dwelling. The psychological importance of primary territories to their owners is always high.

Secondary territories are less important to their occupiers than primary territories, but they do possess moderate significance to their occupants. A person's desk at work, favorite restaurant, locker in the gym, and home playing field are examples. Control of these territories is less essential to the occupant and is more likely to change, rotate, or be shared with strangers.

Public territories are areas open to anyone in good standing with the community. Beaches, sidewalks, and hotel lobbies are public territories. Occasionally, because of discrimination or unacceptable behavior, public territories are closed to some individuals. Retail stores, for example, are public territories open to anyone. However, someone who causes trouble may be banned from a particular store.

The physical self may be considered as a body territory. The boundary is at one's skin. Bodies may be entered with permission (as in surgery) or without permission (as in a knife attack). Some people mark and personalize their own bodies with makeup, jewelry, tattoos, piercings, and clothing, but they certainly defend and try to control access to their bodies by other people.

Two other types of territories exist, although they are not universally considered territories. Objects meet some of the criteria for

territories—we mark, personalize, defend, and control our possessions. Ideas are also, in some ways, territories. We defend them through patents and copyrights. There are rules against plagiarism. Software authors and songwriters try to protect ownership of their programs and songs.

Territoriality Infringements

Even though territories usually work to keep society hassle-free, sometimes they are infringed upon. The most obvious form of infringement is invasion, in which an outsider physically enters someone else's territory, usually with the intention of taking it from its current owner. One obvious example is one country trying to take the territory of another.

The second form of infringement is violation, a temporary infringement of someone's territory. Usually, the goal is not ownership but annoyance or harm. Vandalism, hit-and-run attacks, and burglary fall into this category.

Sometimes a violation occurs out of ignorance, as when a boy who cannot yet read walks into a women's wash-room. Other times the violation is deliberate, such as computer pranksters worming their way into others' machines. Violation may occur without the infringer personally entering the territory. Jamming radio waves and playing loud music are some examples.

The third form of infringement is contamination, in which the infringer fouls someone else's territory by putting something awful in the territory. Examples would be a chemical company leaving poisonous waste in the ground for later residents to deal with, a house-guest leaving the kitchen filthy, or pesticide spray drifting into your yard.

Territoriality Defenses

Just as there are a three general ways to infringe on territories, there are three different types of defense. When someone uses a coat, sign, or fence to defend a territory, it is called a prevention defense. One anticipates infringement and acts to stop it before it occurs.

Reaction defenses, on the other hand, are responses to an infringement after it happens. Examples range from slamming a door in someone's face or physically striking the infringer to court actions for copyright violations.

The third type is the social boundary defense. Used at the edge of interactional territories, the social boundary defense consists of a ritual engaged in by hosts and visitors. For example, you need a password to enter many Web sites. Another example is the customs office at the national border. Social boundary defenses serve to separate wanted visitors from unwanted ones.

Territoriality in Everyday Life

One way territoriality has been used in everyday life involves defensible space theory, sometimes called crime prevention through environmental design. The theory proposes that certain design features, such as real or symbolic barriers to separate public territory from private territory and opportunities for territory owners to observe suspicious activity in their spaces, will increase residents' sense of security and make criminals feel uneasy. It has been used widely to reduce crime in residences, neighborhoods, and retail stores.

Crowding Definition

Environmental psychologists study how human behavior and the physical environment interrelate. Decision making and behavior make an impact on environmental quality—did you walk, bike, drive, or use public transit to get to school today? The physical environment also

affects behavior. Crowding illustrates how the physical environment can affect human behavior.

Psychologists distinguish between crowding, a psychological construct wherein the amount of space available is less than desired, and purely physical indices of physical space such as density. Density is typically indexed as people per room or people per square foot. More external density measures like people per acre are less relevant for human well-being. The more immediate experience of the close presence of others, particularly in living and working spaces, matters most. The distinction between psychological and physical perspectives on crowding explains why a high-density social event (e.g., party) is fun, whereas a high-density living or work space can be negative. When you need more space and can't have it, you experience crowding.

The most common reaction to crowding is stress, particularly over time and in an important space like home. For example when it is crowded, people typically have negative feelings such as anxiety and frustration about restricted behavioral options. Our choices of what, where, and when we do things are constrained. If these restrictions are experienced repeatedly, crowding can also lead to feelings of helplessness wherein we start to question our own ability to effectively manage the environment. Studies in India and in the United States have found that children and adolescents who live in more crowded homes, independent of socioeconomic status, are less likely to persist on challenging puzzles, giving up sooner than those living under uncrowded conditions.

When people experience crowding, their social interactions change. Two results are common: They withdraw from others, creating more psychological space when physical space is limited, and they become more irritable and potentially aggressive. The natural tendency to cope

with crowding by social withdrawal may become a characteristic way of interacting with others. For example, one study of college roommates found that when they initially moved in together, the number of people per room in their apartment was unrelated to how much social support they perceived from their housemates. But after 6 months of living together, more crowded undergraduates felt more withdrawn and less social support from their roommates. When these college students were brought into a laboratory to interact with a stranger, they exhibited this same more socially withdrawn style. Furthermore, when the stranger (who was really a confederate working with the experimenter) offered them some emotional support during a stressful experience, the higher the density of the apartment the student lived in, the less likely they were to accept the stranger's offer of support. Thus, even when in an uncrowded situation, students who had adapted to living under more crowded conditions were more withdrawn and less receptive to offers of social support. Parents in more crowded homes are also less responsive to their children.

One of the ways researchers mark whether a situation is stressful or not is to use physiological measures like blood pressure or stress hormones (e.g., cortisol, epinephrine). If crowding is a stressor, then it should affect these physiological measures. Both laboratory research, usually with college students, and community studies provide evidence that crowding can cause physiological stress. If you carefully observe yourself or others who are in a crowded situation, you can also see nonverbal indicators of stress. For example when it's crowded, people will fidget; adjust their clothes, hair, jewelry, and so on; and often avoid eye contact. Next time you are in a very crowded setting (e.g., elevator, train), see if you notice a link between how crowded the setting is and how much these behaviors occur.

Will crowding make you seriously disturbed or damage your health? Will it ruin your grades and undermine your college experience because you are in a dorm room that isn't big enough? No, but it will probably lead to more distress and more social withdrawal, especially from your roommates. If you have an exam to study for or a difficult, challenging task, crowding could have some negative effects. Laboratory experiments show that crowding impairs complex, but not simple, task performance. If the task is demanding, requiring a lot of effort and attention to multiple components, it is likely to suffer under crowded conditions.

What about individual differences in sensitivity to crowding—does everyone respond the same way to a crowded situation? If you are studying and your friend is talking with his friends, crowding is likely to have drastically different effects on each of you. Men may react more physiologically to crowding, their blood pressure and stress hormones elevating more, whereas women (at least initially) try to get along with those around them when it's crowded. However, over time, if these attempts are unsuccessful, women may actually react more negatively because their attempts at affiliation prove futile. One study of tripled college dorm rooms designed for two people found more psychological distress in women than in men, but it took more time for this to occur in the females. The tripled-up men, but not the women, evidenced elevated stress hormones. How about culture or ethnicity? Some groups of people (e.g., Asian, Latin Americans) do indeed perceive high-density situations as less crowded than do others (e.g., White and Black North Americans). But their negative reactions to crowding are similar across cultures. The threshold to experience crowding may be different, but once it happens, their reactions are parallel to one another.

One final topic worth brief mention is the potential role of architecture and design in crowding. Space is not simply area or volume. For

example, in a study of elementary school children, the impacts of residential density were related to the type of housing. Children living in larger, multifamily residences, independently of social class, reacted more negatively to higher-density living spaces than did children living in single-family homes. There is also evidence that having some space in your home where you can at least temporally be alone (refuge) can offset some of the negative impacts of crowding. Crowding is but one example of the many ways in which human behavior and the physical environment can influence one another.

UNIT-8 Social Psychology MCQs

DIWAKAR EDUCATION HUB

1. _____ is best known for his research on conformity
a) Asch
b)Rubin
c) Schachter
d) Zimbardo
Ans:- A

2. During the Stanford Prison study,
a) guards did not take their roles seriously
b) guards readily assumed their roles as agents of force
c) the prisoners and the guards quickly became friendly towards one another
d) three prisoners were so severely beaten they had to be hospitalized
Ans:- B

3. During research in a simulated prison situation
a) three prisoners were so severely beaten they had to be hospitalized
b) guards did not take their roles seriously
c) prisoners quickly became passive and dehumanized
d) the prisoners and the guards quickly became friendly towards one another
Ans:- C

4. The degree of attraction among group members relates to the dimension of
a) Compatibility
b) Structure
c) Cohesiveness
d) Conformity
Ans:- C

5. You are walking into a store when a man rudely cuts in front of you, almost shoving you, so that he may enter the store first. "What a jerk!" you think to yourself. As you enter the store, you see the same man performing an emergency tracheotomy on a women with a collapsed windpipe. You have just
a) discounted a person's actions due to situational demands
b) self-handicapped
c) overemphasized the object in this action sequence
d) made the fundamental attribution error
Ans:- D

6. According to evolutionary psychologists,
a) women tend to be concerned with whether mates will devote time and resources to a relationship.

b) men place less emphasis on physical attractiveness
c) women place more emphasis on sexual fidelity
d) men are biologically driven to have multiple partners
Ans:- A

7. Which statement about physical attractiveness is FALSE?
a) Beauty is a factor mainly in initial acquaintances
b) Looks are less related to dating frequency for men than for women
c) For men, there is little relationship between attractiveness and the achievement of status
d) For marriage partners there is a tendency for attractive men to be paired with highly educated women with high incomes
Ans:- D

8. Moderate self-disclosure typically leads to
a) competence matching
b) rejection
c) romantic attraction
d) reciprocity
Ans:- D

9. When subjects in Milgram's obedience experiments received their orders over the phone, they
a) conformed more completely due to the formality of the telephoned instructions
b) completely refused to participate
c) were only slightly more obedient than they were in face-to-face conditions
d) were far less obedient
Ans:- D

10. Solomon Asch's classic experiment (in which subjects judged a standard line and comparison lines) was arranged to test the limits of
a) social perception
b) indoctrination
c) coercive power
d) conformity
Ans:- D

11. The person who agrees to a small request initially is more likely later to comply with a larger demand. This describes the
a) door-in-the-face-effect
b) foot-in-the-door effect
c) low-ball technique
d) high-ball technique
Ans:- B

12. For most American adults, an invisible spatial envelope defining their most intimate space
a) extends four feet from their body
b) extends an "arm's reach" from their body
c) is reserved for comfortable interactions with friends
d) extends about 18 inches out from their body
Ans:- D

13. Which theory holds that a relationship must be profitable to endure?
a) complementary need theory
b) social exchange theory
c) gain-loss theory
d) social comparison theory
Ans:- B

14. You are asked by a close friend to outline a complete text to aid her studying for a final exam. You refuse to help. Later, your friend asks if you would at least outline two chapters. Feeling guilty, you now agree to help. Your behavior is predicted by the
a) foot-in-the-face technique
b) high-ball effect
c) low-ball technique
d) door-in-the-face effect
Ans:- D

15. _____ attachment style is marked by conflicting feelings of affection, anger, and emotional turmoil
a) Mutual
b) Secure
c) Avoidant
d) Ambivalent
Ans:- D

16. Zimbardo interpreted the results of his simulated prison study as an indication of the
a) powerful influence of roles on people
b) tendency to show compassion to people in need
c) weakness of social pressure in some situations
d) tendency to displace aggression
Ans:- A

17. Subjects in Milgram's experiment who gave large shocks rationalized that they were NOT personally responsible for their actions. This raises questions about our willingness to commit inhumane acts as a result of
a) coercive power

b) obedience to a legitimate authority
c) expert power
d) conformity to group pressure
Ans:- B

18. The process of changing your behavior to match that of others in a group is
a) Norming
b) forming a social contract
c) conformity
d) standardization
Ans:- C

19. If everyone leaves five minutes before the game is over to avoid a traffic jam, the resulting traffic jam would be an example of
a) social impregnation
b) a social trap
c) groupthink
d) self-handicapping
Ans:- B

20. People's invisible "spatial envelope" defines their _____, and extends "I" or "me" boundaries past the skin
a) spatial role
b) personal space
c) ego location
d) proximal location
Ans:- B

21. Physical proximity increases attraction because it
a) increases frequency of contact
b) enhances social comparisons
c) establishes common norms
d) reduces development of incompatible roles
Ans:- A

22. The study of unspoken rules for the use of interpersonal space is called
a) Kinesics
b) Psychoecology
c) Proxemics
d) Territoriality
Ans:- C

23. Someone asks you to bring dip to a party and you agree. Later the person asks you to also bring popcorn, chips, and sodas. The person has used which compliance strategy?
a) the low-ball technique
b) the over-commitment strategy
c) the whole-part technique
d) the passive obedience method
Ans:- A

24. The real danger of "groupthink" is that it
a) is contagious
b) occurs in cohesive groups
c) disrupts coordinated efforts at group problem solving
d) leads to a suspension of critical thinking
Ans:- D

25. The organization of roles, patterns of communication, and power in a group defines the group's
a) Status
b) Structure
c) Cohesiveness
d) Norms
Ans:- B

26. Those roles which one attains voluntarily are called
a) ascribed roles
b) achieved roles
c) positions
d) social selves
Ans:- B

27. Social traps can be dismantled by changing
a) rewards and costs
b) supply and demand
c) compliance and assertiveness
d) the tendency toward groupthink
Ans:- A

28. A learned disposition to respond to people, objects, or institutions in a positive or negative way defines
a) cognitive dissonance
b) socialization
c) attitudes
d) stereotypes
Ans:- C

29. In general, helping behavior in emergency situations is discouraged by
a) the presence of a large number of persons
b) low costs associated with helping
c) smaller social distance between the helper and the victim
d) fear of cognitive dissonance
Ans:- A

30. When a person with little or no authority makes a direct request to another person, the situation involves
a) Compliance
b) Obedience
c) Coercion
d) Conformity
Ans:- A

31. The fact that physically attractive people also tend to be rated more highly on traits such as intelligence and honesty is an example of
a) social magnetism
b) role modeling
c) social comparisons
d) the halo effect
Ans:- D

32. Negative attitudes that are tinged with fear, hatred, or suspicion is a definition of
a) Prejudice
b) Authoritarianism
c) Discrimination
d) Displaced aggression
Ans:- A

33. Interpersonal attraction is encouraged by which one of the following?
a) personal space
b) proxemics
c) competition
d) similarity
Ans:- D

34. Janis recommends ways to prevent groupthink, which include
a) focusing on subjective evaluation and interpretation
b) having the leader state personal preferences before discussion
c) focusing on the decision, as opposed to the process
d) encouraging someone to play devil's advocate
Ans:- D

35. In an experiment in which a "student" simulated a seizure, helping was inhibited by
a) conditions employing smaller groups
b) diffusion of responsibility
c) group discussion
d) reference cognitive dissonance
Ans:- B

36. Sharing your own private thoughts and feelings is called
a) self-talk
b) autonomy
c) self-disclosure
d) introspection
Ans:- C

37. Which of the following was a significant factor in determining the degree of obedience in Milgram's series of experiments?
a) the tone of voice used by the experimenter

b) whether the experimenter was male or female
c) amount of complaining, shouting, and crying by the learner
d) the setting in which the experiment was conducted
Ans:- D

38. You do not want a large, unattractive political sign in your yard. However, if you initially agree to put a small sign in your window, later you are more likely to allow the large sign in your yard. This course of events is described by the
a) foot-in-the-face technique
b) low-ball technique
c) door-in-the-face effect
d) foot-in-the-door effect
Ans:- D

39. In his classic studies of conformity, Asch demonstrated that
a) size of the majority does not influence how many people will conform
b) a majority of one produces about as much conformity as a majority of eight
c) lack of unanimity greatly reduces the pressure to conform
d) obedience to authority was determined by the authority's perceived referent power
Ans:- C

40. Expected behavior patterns associated with particular social positions are called
a) Roles
b) Culture
c) Stereotypes
d) Mannerisms
Ans:- A

41. As part of an experiment, two young women stroll down a busy sidewalk with their arms around each other. They get a variety of reactions from passersby, including disapproving looks and comments. These reactions demonstrate the existence of
a) Norms
b) ascribed roles
c) group structures
d) achieved roles
Ans:- A

42. How individuals are affected by the presence of others is the focus of study in the field of
a) Sociology
b) Social psychology

c) Experimental psychology
d) Sociobiology
Ans:- B

43. Groups reward members with _____ and _____ for comformity.
a) unanimity; power
b) power; authority
c) legitimacy; power
d) approval; acceptance
Ans:- D

44. Stanley Milgram's experiment in which a "teacher" gave shocks to a "learner" was designed to test the limits of
a) expert power
b) coercive power
c) obedience
d) conformity to a majority
Ans:- C

45. Milgram's shock study showed people to be surprisingly
a) Rebellious
b) Intelligent
c) Sexist
d) Obedient
Ans:- D

46. A reference group is
a) one with which a person has face-to-face contact
b) any group in which one plays an active role or has membership
c) any group outside one's social distance boundaries
d) any group whose values and attitudes are seen as relevant to one's own
Ans:- D

47. Studies of conformity indicate that people are more apt to be influenced by others if they
a) are concerned about the approval of others
b) have low needs for certainty and structure
c) are in temporary rather than established groups
d) are in very large groups
Ans:- A

48. In-group bias is the
a) Tendency to favor one's group and see this group as correct
b) Tendency to see other members of a group as similar
c) Tendency to perform worse when others are watching
d) Tendency to conform to the social harmony of a group
Ans:- A

49. People who are less likely to help someone because there are a lot of people present would be exhibiting:
a) Groupthink
b) Group polarization
c) Diffusion of responsibility
d) Mere exposure effect
Ans:- C

50. If you have a friend who is reluctant to help you clean your entire room, you maybe successful through asking him to simply help you move one item in your room. this approach is referred to as:
a) Cognitive dissonance
b) Altruism
c) Foot-in-the-door
d) Door-in-the-foot
Ans:- C

51. Which of these is not a principle of great man theory?
a) Leaders are born not made.
b) Great men rise up in times of crisis
c) We can learn from the biographies of great leaders
d) A great leader is only great in certain situations
Ans:- D

52. In leadership trait theory what is a trait?
a) A list of the things that make leaders different to everyone else
b) A list of the key things that a leader should do to be great
c) The list of key behaviours a leader exhibits
d) A list of key characteristics that makes a leader great
Ans:- D

53. For the Ohio State leadership studies the perfect leader:
a) Combines a focus on the task and the employee
b) Focuses on the task and getting things done
c) Inspires workers to aim higher and achieve more
d) Is concerned about the small details and how to increase productivity
Ans:- A

54. Contingency theory is based on the assumption that the ideal leader:
a) Shapes their leadership style depending on the situation
b) Provides clear instructions to the followers so that they know what they are doing

c) Knows what their strengths are and makes the most out of them
d) Spends time with their followers and therefore listens and responds to their needs
Ans:- A

55. A transactional leader is one who:
a) Inspires people and has strong interactions with them
b) Does deals with people in order to get them to do things the leader wants
c) Is the ideal form of leadership
d) Works for long-term goals of the organization
Ans:- B

56. What is a transformational leader?
a) Someone who is involved in organizational change
b) A leader, like Taylor, who provided new ways of carrying out management
c) A leader who inspires the workers to new levels by offering them a vision of a better future
d) leader who tries to transform their staff by giving them rewards for what they do
Ans:- C

57. What is post-heroic leadership theory?
a) A theory which states that there is too much emphasis on leaders and more attention should be placed on followers
b) A theory looking beyond current leadership styles to new, more creative ways of leading
c) A theory which tries to create new organizations which do not need leaders
d) A theory which tries to find the ideal form of leadership
Ans:- A

58. What is the social construction of leadership?
a) The view that all leadership is social and what matters is how leaders interact with others
b) Leadership is a made up idea that therefore we should pay more attention to more significant aspects of the organization
c) What counts as good leadership is a construction of the perceptions of the followers
d) Leadership is something that the leader constructs as they meet with others
Ans:- C

59. What is the 'glass ceiling'?
a) A barrier which prevents women from passing through to more senior positions in the company
b) An old fashioned idea that suggests that women should not make it to the boardroom in organizations
c) The effect where men can pass by women in women dominated professions
d) An approach which seeks to get more women in senior positions in organizations
Ans:- A

60. Jimmy is very quiet at school, but later that night at a party Jimmy gets 'crazy' and starts to cut the rug on the dance floor. Jimmy's classmates are stunned at this displayed behavior. Jimmy is experiencing:
a) Group polarization
b) The power of SSRI's
c) Deindividuation
d) Groupthink
Ans:- C

61. _____ set up an experiment, known as the Stanford Prison experiment, where people plaed the role of a prison guard. The goal was to observe if this authority position would cause them to act differently.
a) Stanley Milgram
b) Philip Zimbardo
c) Soloman Ache
d) Muzafer Sherif
Ans:- B

62. Social Facilitation occurs:
a) To the tendency for people to do less in a group setting
b) To the tendency to keep personal opinions to themselves for fear of upsetting the group
c) When the presence of other people watching improves a person's performance
d) When the presence of other people watching hinders a person's performance
Ans:- C

63. Groupthink is defined as:
a) When an attitude becomes stronger in group presence
b) Thinking that revolves around keeping harmony within a group through not disagreeing with group opinion
c) The tendency to do less in a group situation

d) Improved performance when people are watching
Ans:- B

64. In Stanley Migram's experiment on the role of obedience, the _____ was the person who worked with Milgram and played the part of an authority figure.
a) Teacher
b) Learner
c) Experimenter
d) Doctor
Ans:- C

65. According to Soloman Ache, in his experiment on conformity ____% of the subjects gave the wrong answer because the group unanimously also gave the wrong answer.
a) 76
b) 48
c) 32
d) 89
Ans:- A

66. In Stanley Milgram's experiment on the role of obedience, the _____ was the subject who was being observed and did not know what the experiment was about or what was being studied.
a) Learner
b) Experimenter
c) Teacher
d) Milgram
Ans:- C

67. _____ is a change in behavior or belief as a result of group pressure.
a) Cohesiveness
b) Conformity
c) Compliance
d) Obedience
Ans:- B

68. Publicly acting in accord with social pressure while privately disagreeing is called
a) Acceptance
b) Compliance
c) Reactance
d) Interaction
Ans:- B

69. Both acting and believing in accord with social pressure is called
a) Acceptance
b) Reactance
c) Compliance
d) Interaction
Ans:- A

70. An important difference between Asch's experiment in which participants judged the length of lines and Sherif's experiment in which participants judged the movement of light was that
a) Asch's participants were older than were Sherif's
b) there was an obviously correct answer in judging the length of lines but that was not so in judging the movement of light
c) Asch's participants made their judgments privately whereas Sherif's participants made their judgments publicly
d) Asch's participants were all male whereas Sherif's participants were both male and female
Ans:- B

71. In Asch's study of perceptual judgment involving the length of lines, naive participants conformed _____ of the time to the false judgments of the confederates.
a) 10 percent
b) 37 percent
c) 68 percent
d) 92 percent
Ans:- B

72. Participants' tendencies to obey the experimenter's commands to shock a victim were highest when the experimenter was _____ and the victim was _____.
a) close; distant
b) close; close
c) distant; distant
d) distant; close
Ans:- A

73. To believe that Asch's compliant participants were particularly spineless people is to
a) forget that behavior shapes belief
b) overlook other personality characteristics that determine conformity
c) make the fundamental attribution error
d) ignore how the status of the experimenter shapes behavior
Ans:- C

74. How social pressure may lead us to perform immoral acts is best illustrated by studies of
a) psychological reactance
b) spontaneous self-concept
c) obedience to authority
d) informational influence
Ans:- C

75. The effect of group size on conformity has been explained by _____ theory.
a) cognitive dissonance
b) social norm
c) psychological reactance
d) social impact
Ans:- D

76. Milgram reported that a participant's tendency to obey the experimenter decreased dramatically
a) when two other participants defied the experimenter
b) when the participant could not hear the responses of the learner
c) when the experimenter was a female
d) when the experimenter was younger than the participant
Ans:- A

77. Philip hates to attend concerts but goes because his wife wants to. After three years Philip comes to genuinely enjoy concerts. This is an example of
a. how acceptance can lead to compliance
b. how compliance can lead to acceptance
c. the "boomerang effect"
d. how psychological reactance can lead to acceptance
Ans:- B

78. Commitment without intimacy or passion is
a) Romantic love
b) Empty love
c) Non love
d) Consummate love
Ans:- B

79. Decibel (dB) is the unit of
a) Temperature
b) Noise
c) Pressure
d) Density
Ans:- B

80. Depressive disorder connected to a specific season is
a) Bipolar Disorder
b) SAD
c) Mania
d) Hallucination
Ans:- B

81. A person's domicile is an example of _____ territory
a) Primary
b) Secondary
c) Tertiary
d) None of the above

Ans:- A

82. Waiting room is a kind of _____ territory
a) Primary
b) Secondary
c) Tertiary
d) None of the above
Ans:- C

83. One's preferred chair in a class is _____
a) Primary territory
b) Secondary territory
c) Tertiary territory
d) None of the above
Ans:- B

84. Crowding is a:
a) Psychological phenomena
b) Subjective feeling
c) Potential source of stress
d) All of the above
Ans:- D

85. Everyone has the right to access is:
a) Primary territory
b) Secondary territory
c) Tertiary territory
d) Both b & c
Ans:- C

86. According to Hall, intimate distance is
a) 6 – 18 inches
b) 1.5 – 4 feet
c) 4 – 12 feet
d) 12 – 25 feet
Ans:- A

87. Personal distance is
a) 6 – 18 inches
b) 1.5 – 4 feet
c) 4 – 12 feet
d) 12 – 25 feet
Ans:- B

88. Public distance can be
a) 6 – 18 inches
b) 1.5 – 4 feet
c) 4 – 12 feet
d) 12 – 25 feet
Ans:- D

89. A distance of _____ is social distance
a) 6 – 18 inches
b) 1.5 – 4 feet
c) 4 – 12 feet
d) 12 – 25 feet
Ans:- C

90. The highest level of physical distance is in _____
a) Intimate relations

b) Public relations
c) Personal relations
d) Social relations
Ans:- B

91. Personal space first defined by
a) Hall
b) Sommer
c) Katz
d) Sheriff
Ans:- C

92. Correct Sequence of prosocial behaviour
a) Notice what is happening > Interpret the event as an emergency > Experience feelings of responsibility > Believe that they have the skills to help > Make a conscious choice to offer assistance
b) Interpret the event as an emergency > Notice what is happening > Experience feelings of responsibility > Believe that they have the skills to help > Make a conscious choice to offer assistance
c) Believe that they have the skills to help > Experience feelings of responsibility > Notice what is happening > Interpret the event as an emergency > Make a conscious choice to offer assistance
d) Experience feelings of responsibility > Believe that they have the skills to help > Notice what is happening > Interpret the event as an emergency > Make a conscious choice to offer assistance
Ans:- A

93. Unselfish concern for other people is
a) Prosocial behavior
b) Bystander effect
c) Altruism
d) Volunteering
Ans:- C

94. The Negative Affect Escape Model explained by
a) Baron
b) Baron & Bell
c) Bell
d) None of the above
Ans:- B

95. Negative Affect Escape Model links to:
a) Inverted S hypothesis
b) Inverted U hypothesis
c) Parabola
d) S curve
Ans:- B

96. Population is effected by

a) Birth & death
b) immigration
c) emigration
d) all of the above
Ans:- D

97. Technical term used for the study of human population
a) Biography
b) Demography
c) Bibliography
d) Census
Ans:- B

98. Kin selection is an evolutionary theory that explains _____ of Altruism
a) Biological reasons
b) Neurological reasons
c) Cognitive reasons
d) Social norms
Ans:- A

99. Emergency observed -> Empathy aroused -> Help provided to the victim as it gave good feeling to the helper is;
a) Negative – state relief model
b) Genetic determinism mode
c) Empathy-altruism hypothesis
d) Empathy-joy hypothesis
Ans:- C

100. Who is more likely to help?
a) A person with a handicap
b) A person with an altruistic personality
c) A stranger to the victim
d) A person in a crowd of strangers
Ans:- B

101. Phrenologists tried to find out about personality by:
a. reading a person's horoscope
b. feeling a person's skull
c. looking at a person's hands
d. asking people questions
Ans:- B

102. A limitation of selective breeding studies is that they cannot:
a. tell us anything about the role of genes
b. be used to study human beings
c. provide information relevant to the nature/nurture debate
d. tell us anything about the role of the environment
Ans:- B

103. Which neo-Freudian challenged his ideas about penis envy?
a. Adler
b. Fromm

c. Jung
d. Horney

Ans:- D

104. Someone who feels as though they are not living up to expectations would be described by Adler as having:
a. low self-realization
b. an Adlerian complex
c. an inferiority complex
d. low actualization

Ans:- C

105. According to Freud, the mind's three components are:
a. ego, id, superego
b. unconscious, moral, immoral
c. oral, anal, phallic
d. primary, secondary, tertiary

Ans:- A

106. The idea that you can assess someone's personality by studying their face is called:
a. phrenology
b. physiology
c. somatology
d. physiognomy

Ans:- D

107. The _____ complex is to girls as the _____ complex is to boys.
a. Electra, Oedipus
b. Oedipus, Electra
c. oral, phallic
d. phallic, oral

Ans:- A

108. The discovery that the heritability of the Big Five personality traits is around 40% – 50% suggests that:
a. the environment plays no role in personality
b. genes play no role in personality
c. the environment plays an important role in personality
d. the Big Five traits account for about half of our personality

Ans:- C

109. Humanistic psychologists embraced the idea of:
a. repression
b. free will
c. unconscious drives
d. the id

Ans:- B

110. According to Eysenck, extraverts seek to _____ their arousal while introverts seek to _____ their arousal.

a. decrease, increase
b. hide, reveal
c. increase, decrease
d. reveal, hide

Ans:- C

111. Allport believed that traits could be organized into three levels:
a. primary, secondary, tertiary
b. cognitive, emotional, physiological
c. id, ego, superego
d. cardinal, central, secondary

Ans:- D

112. The MMPI is used to measure:
a. unconscious drives
b. the Big Five traits
c. personality and psychological disorders
d. leadership potential

Ans:- C

113. Which of the following is NOT one of the Big Five traits?
a. sense of humour
b. openness to experience
c. conscientiousness
d. extraversion

Ans:- A

114. Freud founded the _____ approach to understanding human behaviour.
a. palliative
b. psychodynamic
c. patronymic
d. psychedelic

Ans:- B

115. The influence of parents on the personality of their children is:
a. non-existent
b. weakest in early childhood
c. strongest in early childhood
d. consistent across the lifespan

Ans:- C

116. What is special about "knockout" mice?
a. they are very attractive
b. their DNA has been modified
c. they are easy to knock out
d. they are unusually aggressive

Ans:- B

117. The aim of behavioural genetics is to learn about:
a. the extent to which geneticists can modify people's behaviour
b. the possibility of eradicating behavioural problems in children
c. the genetic and environmental influences on

human behaviour
d. the ability of animals to learn language
Ans:- C

118. Monozygotic is to _____ twins as dizygotic is to _____ twins.
a. male, female,
b. female, male
c. fraternal, identical
d. identical, fraternal
Ans:- D

119. Which of the following characteristics describe someone who, according to Maslow, is self-actualized?
a. creativity
b. confidence
c. spontaneity
d. all of the above
Ans:- D

120. According to Freud, children pass through 4 stages of psychosexual development. Which of the following shows the stages in the correct developmental order?
a. oral, anal, phallic, latency
b. latency, oral, anal, phallic
c. phallic, anal, oral, latency
d. oral, phallic, latency, anal
Ans:- A

121. Projective tests claim to reveal information about:
a. career aptitude
b. intellectual attainment
c. unconscious processes
d. parenting style
Ans:- C

122. Traits are defined as:
a. physical characteristics that distinguish us from other people
b. relatively enduring characteristics that influence our behaviour across many situations
c. unconscious tendencies to act in different ways according to the situation
d. permanent personality tendencies that determine our behaviour in any situation
Ans:- B

123. Sheldon's theory that people with different body types have different personalities has been:
a. supported by research
b. discredited
c. shown to be accurate for thin

people but not overweight people
d. shown to be accurate for women but not for men
Ans:- B

124. Which of the following is not a defence mechanism?
a. projection
b. regression
c. ingratiation
d. sublimation
Ans:- C

125. Rohan is self-disciplined, focused on achievement and keen to do his duty. He would be expected to score highly on:
a. neuroticism
b. agreeableness
c. extraversion
d. conscientiousness
Ans:- D

126. The Barnum effect helps to explain people's belief in:
a. fortune-telling
b. astrology
c. horoscopes
d. all the above
Ans:- D

127. _____ are the basic biological units that transmit characteristics from one generation to the next:
a. genes
b. neurons
c. glia
d. instincts
Ans:- A

128. Which of the following would NOT be useful to a behavioural geneticist?
a. family studies
b. case studies
c. adoption studies
d. twin studies
Ans:- B

129. According to Freud, the id is to the _____ principle as the ego is to the _____ principle.
a. aggressive, sexual
b. sexual, aggressive
c. pleasure, reality
d. reality, pleasure
Ans:- C

130. Lana is friendly, always willing to help others and compassionate. We would expect Lana to score highly on:

a. extraversion
b. agreeableness
c. neuroticism
d. openness to experience

Ans:- B

131. Physically attractive people are usually perceived as:
a. more intelligent than unattractive people
b. more dominant than unattractive people
c. more socially skilled than unattractive people
d. all of the above

Ans:- D

132. Research has shown a positive correlation between aggression and the level of:
a. acetylcholine
b. testosterone
c. estrogen
d. GABA

Ans:- B

133. In Milgram's original study on obedience, what percentage of participants were willing to administer the maximum level of shock:
a. 5%
b. 30%
c. 65%
d. 95%

Ans:- C

134. People are more likely to help others if:
a. they are in a bad mood
b. they feel guilty about something
c. someone else is already helping
d. they are in a hurry

Ans:- A

135. Punching a wall or kicking a chair when you are angry at a co-worker are examples of:
a. displaced aggression
b. inanimate hostility
c. repression
d. avoidant attachment

Ans:- A

136. An advertiser who seeks to associate their product with something people already like (for example, a celebrity or a popular song) is making use of:
a. classical conditioning principles
b. pseudoscience
c. operant conditioning

principles
d. sublimation

Ans:- D

137. According to Moreland and Beach, the more frequently we see a person the:
a. less likely we are to recognize them
b. less likely we are to trust them
c. more likely we are to dislike them
d. more likely we are to like them

Ans:- C

138. Having an audience typically _____ us if we are doing an easy task and _____ us if we are doing a difficult task.
a. hinders, hinders
b. helps, helps
c. helps, hinders
d. hinders, helps

Ans:- A

139. Groupthink is most likely when:
a. there is time pressure
b. group members feel no sense of group identity
c. there is a weak leader
d. group members are in frequent contact with people outside the group

Ans:- D

140. Stimulation of the amygdala is most likely to increase feelings of:
a. happiness
b. guilt
c. shyness
d. aggression

Ans:- B

141. Evolutionary theory predicts that we will be most likely to help:
a. old people
b. family members
c. poor people
d. strangers

Ans:- B

142. Research has shown that people are LESS willing to administer severe shocks in the Milgram paradigm if:
a. they choose the level of shock themselves
b. the person telling them to administer the shock is in another room
c. they knew that other people

had refused to administer severe shocks
d. all of the above

Ans:- D

143. In terms of interpersonal attraction, research suggests that:
a. opposites attract
b. similarity breeds contempt
c. birds of a feather flock together
d. a stitch in time saves nine

Ans:- C

144. We tend to stereotype people on the basis of their:
a. physical appearance
b. age
c. race
d. all of the above

Ans:- D

145. People who are high in self-monitoring are _____ likely to act in ways consistent with their attitudes than people who are low in self-monitoring.
a. more
b. less
c. neither more nor less
d. more if they are angry, less if they are sad

Ans:- B

146. To be classed as "intimate", a relationship must be based on:
a. passion
b. acceptance
c. social support
d. all of the above

Ans:- D

147. Prejudice is to _____ as discrimination is to _____.
a. thought, action
b. race, age
c. stereotype, categorization
d. negative, positive

Ans:- A

148. The tendency to underestimate the role of situational factors when deciding why a stranger behaved in a particular way is known as the:
a. self-serving bias
b. fundamental attribution error
c. situational exploitation bias
d. causal explanation error

Ans:- B

149. If you want someone to be attracted to you, research suggests that you should:
a. ask them about themselves

b. argue with them
c. talk only about yourself
d. all of the above

Ans:- A

150. The fact that as group size increases, group productivity tends to decrease is most likely explained by:
a. groupthink
b. stereotyping
c. social loafing
d. social facilitation

Ans:- C

151. According to the "foot in the door" technique, you are more likely to be able to change someone's attitude if you:
a. visit them in their home
b. start by complimenting them on their choice of footwear
c. tell them how many celebrities hold the attitude you want them to adopt
d. get them to make a small change in attitude to start with

Ans:- D

152. Jill and John have been married for many years and rely on each other to meet important goals. This reliance reveals that they are:
a. passionate
b. interdependent
c. self-serving
d. all of the above

Ans:- B

153. Groups that set _____ and _____ goals are more likely to be effective than groups that don't set these kind of goals.
a. easy, vague
b. vague, unreachable
c. specific, attainable
d. difficult, unattainable

Ans:- C

154. Which of the following best illustrates the concept of minority influence?
a. a union is successful in negotiating an improved benefits package for its members
b. three teenagers manage to persuade their school to adopt a new anti-litter policy
c. Shari is able to persuade her friend Ivy to give up smoking
d. the government passes a law requiring cyclists to wear helmets

Ans:- B

155. According to cognitive dissonance theory, we may be motivated to change our attitudes to:
a. reduce negative feelings
b. conform to the attitudes of high-status individuals
c. force others to do the same
d. increase our level of anxiety
Ans:- A

156. Another term for the fundamental attribution error is:
a. commitment
b. correspondence bias
c. cognitive dissonance
d. stereotype threat
Ans:- B

157. We are likely to make a _____ attribution to explain our success, and a _____ attribution to explain our failure.
a. causal, correlational
b. correlational, causal
c. person, situation
d. situation, person
Ans:- C

158. Benjamin thinks that if he kicks his car and swears at his computer he will release his anger and be less aggressive with his co-workers. Benjamin believes in:
a. the fundamental attribution error
b. social loafing
c. social facilitation
d. catharsis
Ans:- D

159. One likely explanation for why so many people ignored Kitty Genovese's situation is:
a. social facilitation
b. the social responsibility norm
c. diffusion of responsibility
d. groupthink
Ans:- C

160. The Implicit Association Test is designed to measure:
a. verbal ability
b. unconscious stereotyping
c. hidden mathematical ability
d. dream content
Ans:- B

161. How does naive psychology differ from phenomenology?

a. Phenomenology uses reaction-time methods
b. Phenomenology is not necessarily concerned with how people think about their own mental processes
c. Phenomenology is no longer actively studied in the field
d. Phenomenology uses people's self-reported ideas about their own cognitions and behaviors

Answer:
d. Phenomenology uses people's self-reported ideas about their own cognitions and behaviors

162. Social cognition is influenced heavily by _____ from cognitive psychology.

a. Theory
b. Models
c. Methods
d. All of the above

Answer:
c. Methods
d. All of the above

163. Who proposed the configural and algebraic models of social cognition?

a. Solomon Asch
b. Kurt Lewin
c. Immanuel Kant
d. A and B

Answer:
a. Solomon Asch

164. Asking people about their own thoughts and behaviors is a technique used by:

a. Behaviorists
b. Elementalists
c. Gestalt psychologists
d. B and C

Answer:
d. B and C

165. According to Kurt Lewin, behavior is determined in part by:

a. Emotion
b. Experience
c. Motivation
d. A and C

Answer:
d. A and C

166. Field theory is more consistent with:

a. An elemental approach
b. A holistic approach
c. A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
b. A holistic approach

167. Why did researchers stop relying on introspection?

a. Studying cognition was not important
b. Results from introspection were not reproducible
c. Research subjects behave differently in private than they do in public
d. Introspection data were difficult to analyze

Answer:
b. Results from introspection were not reproducible

168. During the 1960s, social psychology largely ceased to study:

a. Behavior
b. Cognition
c. A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
d. Neither A nor B

169. Social and cognitive psychologists use computers for:

a. Measuring cognition
b. Simulating cognition
c. Describing cognition
d. All of the above

Answer:
d. All of the above

170. If people are viewed as consistency-seekers, then their cognition is influenced by:

a. Subjective inconsistency
b. Objective inconsistency
c. Attributional inconsistency
d. A and C

Answer:
a. Subjective inconsistency

171. "Errors and biases in our impressions of others are caused by motivations." This is true in what view of the social thinker?

a. Naive scientist
b. Cognitive miser
c. A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
d. Neither A nor B

172. Which technique measures blood flow to different areas of the brain?

a. EEG
b. TMS
c. fMRI
d. A and C

Answer:
c. fMRI

173. Neural evidence suggests that people can think about _____ as having intentions and personality:

a. Geometric shapes
b. Dogs
c. Homeless people
d. A and B

Answer:
d. A and B

174. When people engage in social cognition, their mPFC responses are often:

a. Much stronger than when they are resting
b. Not very different from when they are resting
c. Much less activated than when they are resting
d. None of the above

Answer:
b. Not very different from when they are resting

175. Brains and culture:

a. Cannot be studied in the same experiment
b. Are competing explanations for the same social psychological phenomena
c. Are different levels of analysis of the same social psychological phenomena
d. Are not important to cognitive psychologists

Answer:
c. Are different levels of analysis of the same social psychological phenomena

176. The choice between automatic and controlled processes is:

a. Typically automatic
b. Typically controlled
c. Always automatic
d. Always controlled

Answer:
a. Typically automatic

177. Automatic processes _____ motivations.

a. Influence
b. Are influenced by
c. A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
c. A and B

178. Proceduralized judgments are:

a. Developed without practice
b. Preemptive over non-proceduralized judgments
c. Slower than non-proceduralized judgments
d. Deliberate and thoughtful

Answer:

b. Preemptive over non-proceduralized judgments

179. Judgments about others' _____ are often automatic.

a. Traits
b. Behavior
c. A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
a. Traits

180. Automatic and controlled processes can be triggered by:

a. Subliminal primes
b. Supraliminal primes
c. A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
c. A and B

181. An ironic rebound effect:

a. Occurs during the period of time when one is asked to suppress thoughts
b. Occurs when one is no longer attempting to suppress thoughts
c. Can be prevented by substituting different thoughts for the unwanted thoughts
d. B and C

Answer:
b. Occurs when one is no longer attempting to suppress thoughts

182. Goal-directed automaticity is:

a. Adaptive
b. Maladaptive
c. A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
c. A and B

183. The conscious will is an example of:

a. Automatic process
b. Controlled process
c. Intention
d. Behavior

Answer:
b. Controlled process

184. First-order consciousness necessarily involves:

a. Being mindful
b. Having self-esteem
c. Thinking about one's own thoughts
d. Causing one's own behavior

Answer:
a. Being mindful

185. Mind-wandering is an example of:

a. Stimulus-dependent thought

b. Stimulus-independent thought
c. Unconscious thought
d. Default network deactivation

Answer:
b. Stimulus-independent thought

186. Trying to predict your roommate is an example of:
a. Operant thought
b. Respondent thought
c. A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
a. Operant thought

187. _____ is a thought-sampling technique frequently used outside the laboratory:
a. Experience sampling
b. Think-aloud paradigm
c. Videotaping
d. A and C

Answer:
a. Experience sampling

188. It is possible to study people's thoughts in a useful way when:
a. People report on their thoughts while they are happening
b. People report on the content of their thoughts
c. People report on their thought processes
d. A and B

Answer:
d. A and B

189. The human need to belong preempts:
a. The need for understanding
b. The need for social control
c. Controlled processes in social cognition
d. All of the above

Answer:
a. The need for understanding

190. The dual-process model and continuum model of impression formation:
a. Do not depend on motivation
b. Both propose stable cognitive representations at different stages of impression formation
c. Both suggest distinct rules for proceeding to each stage of impression formation
d. Both involve an interplay of automatic and controlled processes

Answer:
d. Both involve an interplay of automatic and controlled processes

191. Does a person's self-concept typically change, or does it mostly stay the same?

a. **The self-concept remains constant for most people most of the time**
b. **The self-concept is usually malleable, depending on a person's current situation and depending on what other people are nearby**
c. **It depends on the person: some people have only one self-concept, and other people have multiple different self-concepts**
d. **None of the above**

Answer:

b. The self-concept is usually malleable, depending on a person's current situation and depending on what other people are nearby

192. Which qualities does a person have self-schemas for?

a. **Qualities that are important to the person**
b. **Qualities on which the person believes himself to be extreme**
c. **Qualities on which the person is certain the opposite is not true**
d. **All of the above**

Answer:

d. All of the above

193. When we process information related to our own self-schemas, brain activity resembles _____ processes, but when we process information unrelated to our own self-schemas, brain activity resembles more _____ processes.

a. **Social judgment/non-social judgment**
b. **Non-social judgment/social judgment**
c. **Automatic/controlled**
d. **Controlled/automatic**

Answer:

c. Automatic/controlled

194. The relation between individual self-esteem and life satisfaction is _____ in interdependent cultures than it is in independent cultures.

a. **Higher**
b. **Lower**
c. **More stable**
d. **The same**

Answer:

b. Lower

195. What is related to whether the Behavioral Activation System (BAS) or Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS) is activated?

a. Different people tend to activate BAS or BIS more frequently
b. Different situations lead to more BAS or BIS activation
c. The left hemisphere is related to BAS and right hemisphere is related to BIS
d. All of the above

Answer:
d. All of the above

196. If a person notices a difference between the actual self and ideal self, what type of regulatory focus is activated?

a. Promotion focus
b. Prevention focus
c. Self focus
d. Other focus

Answer:
a. Promotion focus

197. Researchers have shown that well-being depends in part on regulatory fit, in other words a match between _____ and _____.

a. Actual self/ideal self
b. Actual self/ought self
c. Ideal self/ought self
d. Goals/regulatory focus

Answer:
d. Goals/regulatory focus

198. What is one reason why people might drink alcohol or watch television after a bad day?

a. Reduce prevention focus
b. Reduce regulatory fit
c. Reduce self-focus
d. Reduce other-focus

Answer:
c. Reduce self-focus

199. In order to regulate ourselves effectively, we depend on:

a. Reasoned responses
b. Hedonic emotions
c. Self-conscious emotions
d. Both A and C

Answer:
d. Both A and C

200. Which needs are satisfied by holding positive illusions about the self?

a. Self-verification
b. Self-improvement
c. Self-enhancement
d. Accuracy

Answer:

c. Self-enhancement

201. People who hold self-enhancing views tend to be:

a. More receptive to negative feedback
b. More defensive about negative feedback
c. More dismissive of negative feedback
d. Both B and C

Answer:
d. Both B and C

202. Elevated cortisol levels indicate:

a. Increased stress
b. Increased self-esteem
c. Increased attachment to close others
d. Reduced heart rate

Answer:
a. Increased stress

203. People who are motivated by self-enhancement seek a self-assessment that is:

a. As realistic as possible
b. As positive as possible
c. Adequately positive
d. Similar to others' assessments of them

Answer:
c. Adequately positive

204. According to terror management theory, what acts as a buffer that reduces people's anxiety about death?

a. Self-esteem
b. Self-verification
c. Endorsement of cultural views
d. Both A and C

Answer:
c. Endorsement of cultural views

205. What process does simulation theory describe?

a. Inferring another person's mental state by imagining one's own mental state in that situation
b. Inferring one's own mental state by imagining how another person might react to the situation
c. Both A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
a. Inferring another person's mental state by imagining one's own mental state in that situation

206. In causal reasoning, when do we shift from more automatic processing to more thoughtful, controlled processing?

a. When a result is unexpected
b. When a result is negative
c. When a result is ambiguous
d. Both A and B

Answer:
d. Both A and B

207. When trying to attribute the reasons for another person's actions, people most commonly implicate:

a. The situation the person was in at the time of the action
b. The person's enduring situation
c. The person's disposition at the time of the action
d. The person's enduring disposition

Answer:
d. The person's enduring disposition

208. Forming dispositional attributions about others tends to be:

a. Uncontrollable
b. Very fast
c. Automatic
d. Both B and C

Answer:
d. Both B and C

209. Why do people form attributions?

a. They are motivated to predict future social events
b. They are motivated to control future social events
c. They are motivated to increase their own self-esteem
d. Both A and B

Answer:
d. Both A and B

210. What did Heider mean by "commonsense psychology?"

a. The thought processes involved in everyday judgments
b. How people understand their own thought processes
c. How people's intuitions about psychology are most often correct
d. None of the above

Answer:
b. How people understand their own thought processes

211. What factors go into a person's capacity to complete an action?

a. Ability
b. Environmental forces
c. Intentions
d. Both A and B

Answer:
d. Both A and B

212. According to Jones and Davis's Correspondent Inference Theory, we find a person's actions to be most informative about invariant dispositions when:

a. **The action depends on the person's situation**
b. **The action is judged to be intentional**
c. **The action seems to be caused by a consistent goal**
d. **Both B and C**

Answer:
d. Both B and C

213. According to Correspondent Inference Theory, if a person's behavior is low in social desirability, then a social perceiver will:

a. **Attribute the behavior to the situation**
b. **Attribute the behavior to the person's disposition**
c. **Find the behavior uninformative**
d. **Both A and C**

Answer:
b. Attribute the behavior to the person's disposition

214. According to Correspondent Inference Theory, people are more likely to form dispositional attributions about someone's choice when:

a. **There are more noncommon effects between the chosen and nonchosen alternatives**
b. **There are fewer noncommon effects between the chosen and nonchosen alternatives**
c. **The choice was hedonically irrelevant**
d. **Both B and C**

Answer:
d. Both B and C

215. What type of model is Kelley's Covariation Model?

a. **A *positive* model: it describes how people actually form attributions in social situations based on distinctiveness, consistency and consensus**
b. **A *normative* model: it describes an idealized set of rules for how people should form attributions when given optimal information about distinctiveness, consistency and consensus**
c. **A *qualitative* model: it describes general tendencies but not quantitative predictions of how people**

might form attributions when given information about distinctiveness, consistency and consensus

d. Both B and C

Answer:

b. A *normative* model: it describes an idealized set of rules for how people should form attributions when given optimal information about distinctiveness, consistency and consensus

216. When forming attributions, which type of information do social perceivers rely on the *least*?

a. Distinctiveness
b. Consistency
c. Consensus
d. None of the above

Answer:

c. Consensus

217. Although findings about misattribution of arousal have turned out not to be strong enough to suggest clinical applications, these findings have been influential nonetheless. What did Schachter and Singer (1962) find in their study that began this line of research?

a. Participants who were given epinephrine and not given accurate information about the side effects reported feeling euphoric or angry
b. Participants who were given epinephrine and were given accurate information about the side effects reported feeling euphoric or angry
c. Participants who were not given epinephrine and were given accurate information about the side effects reported feeling euphoric or angry
d. None of the above

Answer:

a. Participants who were given epinephrine and not given accurate information about the side effects reported feeling euphoric or angry

218. According to Bem's Self Perception Theory, if a person has a given job, under what circumstances will the person infer that they enjoy the job the most?

a. If they are paid very well for the job
b. If they are paid very poorly for the job
c. If their coworkers enjoy the job
d. Both B and C

Answer:
b. If they are paid very poorly for the job

219. When people are cognitively busy, for example when they are busy self-regulating, how will this affect their attributions about others' behavior?

a. **They will pay less attention to the context or situation**
b. **They will pay less attention to the person's actual behavior**
c. **They will make more dispositional attributions**
d. **Both A and C**

Answer:
b. Both A and C

220. When are people relatively less likely to exhibit the fundamental attribution error (or correspondence bias)?

a. **When forming attributions about people they know well**
b. **When forming attributions about the self**
c. **Both A and B**
d. **Neither A nor B**

Answer:
c. Both A and B

221. Which of the following environmental law allows private rights to use a resource that is, groundwater, by viewing it as an attachment to the land?
A. Easement Act
B. Indian Fisheries Act
C. Factories Act
D. All of the above
Ans: A

222. Which environmental law establishes two sets of penal offences whereby the government can sue any person who uses dynamite or other explosive substance in any way (whether coastal or inland) with intent to catch or destroy any fish or poisonous fish in order to kill?
A. Easement Act
B. Indian Fisheries Act
C. Factories Act
D. Coastal Regulation Zone Notification
Ans: B

223. Consider the following statement (s) related to the Coastal Regulation Zone Notification.
I. It puts regulations on various activities, including construction, are regulated.

II. It gives some protection to the backwaters and estuaries.
Code:
A. Only I
B. Only II
C. Both I & II
D. Neither I nor II
Ans: C

224. Consider the following statement (s) related to the Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act.
I. It provides for the protection of birds and animals and for all matters that are connected to it whether it be their habitat or the waterhole or the forests that sustain them.
II. It aims to deal with waste arising from ships along the coastal areas within a specified radius.
Code:
A. Only I
B. Only II
C. Both I & II
D. Neither I nor II
Ans: D

225. Which of the following environmental law empowers the central and state pollution control boards to meet with grave emergencies of air pollution?
A. Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Amendment Act
B. Environment (Protection) Act
C. Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Rules
D. Objective of Hazardous Waste (Management and Handling) Rules
Ans: A

226. Match the following
a. National Environmental Tribunal Act 1. 1995
b. Public Liability Insurance Act and Rules 2. 1991
c. National Environment Appellate Authority Act 3. 1997
d. Biomedical waste (Management and Handling) Rules
Code:

	a	b	c	d
A.	4	3	2	1
B.	4	1	3	2
C.	1	2	3	4
D.	1	4	3	2

Ans: C

227. Consider the following statement (s) related to the Biological Diversity Act.
I. This has been laid down for the regulation of production and consumption of ozone depleting substances.

II. It is an act to provide for the conservation of biological diversity, sustainable use of its components, and fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising out of the use of biological resources and knowledge associated with it.
Code:
A. Only I
B. Only II
C. Both I & II
D. Neither I nor II
Ans: B

228. Which of the following act of environment and ecology is associated with 'law apply to every municipal authority responsible for the collection, segregation, storage, transportation, processing, and disposal of municipal solid wastes'?
A. Municipal Solid Wastes (Management and Handling) Rules
B. Environment (Siting for Industrial Projects) Rules
C. Ozone Depleting Substances (Regulation and Control) Rules
D. Batteries (Management and Handling) Rules
Ans: A

229. Consider the following statement (s) related to the Public Liability Insurance Act and Rules.
I. It was drawn up to provide for public liability insurance for the purpose of providing immediate relief to the persons affected by accident while handling any hazardous substance.
II. This law puts regulations on various activities, including construction, are regulated. It gives some protection to the backwaters and estuaries.
Code:
A. Only I
B. Only II
C. Both I & II
D. Neither I nor II
Ans: A

230. Which of the following is the oldest environmental law in India?
A. Wildlife Protection Act
B. River Board Act
C. Factories Act
D. Easement Act
Ans: D

231. The world as World Environmental day is celebrated on:
(a) December 1
(b) June 5

(c) November 14
(d) August 15
Ans: B

232. The provisions for environmental protection in the constitution were made in:
(a) 1976
(b) 1950
(c) 1982
(d) 1960
Ans: A

233. The provisions of environmental protection in the constitution were made under:
(a) Article 5-A
(b) Article 21-B
(c) Article 27-B (h)
(d) Article 48-A and Article 51-A (g)
Ans: D

234. The first of the major environmental protection act to be promulgated in India was:
(a) Water Act
(b) Air Act
(c) Environmental Act
(d) Noise Pollution Rule
Ans: A

235. The Forest (Conservation) Act was enacted in the year:
(a) 1986
(b) 1974
(c) 1980
(d) 1972
Ans: C

236. The Forest (Conservation) Act extends to the whole of India except:
(a) Uttar Pardesh
(b) Karnataka
(c) Jammu and Kashmir
(d) Haryana
Ans: C

237. Penalty for conservation of the provisions of the Forest Act is under:
(a) Section 3A
(b) Section 4A
(c) Section 12A
(d) Section 8A
Ans: A

238. Offences by the Authorities and Government Department in Forest Act is under:
(a) Section 5B
(b) Section 5A
(c) Section 3B
(d) Section 8A
Ans: C

239. The Wildlife (Protection) Act was enacted in the year:
(a) 1986
(b) 1974
(c) 1994
(d) 1972
Ans: D

240. The power to declare an area as a sanctuary or national park of central Government is Wildlife (Protection) Act is under:
(a) Section 38
(b) Section 39
(c) Section 18
(d) Section 27
Ans: A

241. The Wildlife (Protection) Act contains:
(a) 7 Chapters
(b) 6 Chapters
(c) 5 Chapters
(d) 8 Chapters
Ans: A

242. The Wildlife (Protection) Act contains:
(a) 66 Sections
(b) 6 Sections
(c) 7 Sections
(d) 46 Sections
Ans: A

243. The Water (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act was enacted in the year:
(a) 1986
(b) 1974
(c) 1994
(d) 1975
Ans: B

244. The Water Act contains:
(a) 4 Chapters
(b) 5 Chapters
(c) 7 Chapters
(d) 8 Chapters
Ans: D

245. The Water Act have:
(a) 64 Sections
(b) 68 Sections
(c) 45 Sections
(d) 62 Sections
Ans: A

246. The functions of Central Board are given under:
(a) Section 16
(b) Section 19
(c) Section 25
(d) Section 24
Ans: A

247. The functions of State Board are given under:
(a) Section 16
(b) Section 17
(c) Section 21
(d) Section 45
Ans: B

248. Power to give directions are declared under:
(a) Section 16
(b) Section 17
(c) Section 18
(d) Section 25
Ans: C

249. In the Water Act the entire National Capital Territory of Delhi has been declared as water pollution prevention control area under:
(a) Section 21
(b) Section 23
(c) Section 19
(d) Section 24
Ans: C

250. The Air (Prevention and Control of Pollution) Act was enacted in the year:
(a) 1981
(b) 1996
(c) 2000
(d) 1974
Ans: A

251. The Air Act contains:
(a) 5 Chapters
(b) 6 Chapters
(c) 7 Chapters
(d) 8 Chapters
Ans: C

252. The Air Act have
(a) 56 Section
(b) 54 Section
(c) 58 Section
(d) 62 Section
Ans: B

253. Noise pollution has been inserted as pollution in the Air Act in:
(a) 1981
(b) 1987
(c) 1982
(d) 2000
Ans: B

254. The Environmental (Protection) Act was enacted in the year:
(a) 1986
(b) 1992
(c) 1984
(d) 1974
Ans: A

255. The EPA consists:
(a) 2 Chapters
(b) 4 Chapters
(c) 8 Chapters
(d) 7 Chapters
Ans: B

256. The EPA contains:
(a) 25 Sections
(b) 12 Sections
(c) 26 Sections
(d) 14 Sections
Ans: C

257. NGOs stands for:
(a) Non-Governmental Organization
(b) Nine-Governmental Organization
(c) Non-Gained Organizations
(d) National-Grade Organization
Ans: A

258. The Women's Population in the world is almost:
(a) Half
(b) One-forth
(c) One-third
(d) One fifth
Ans: A

259. Litrate women can help in:
(a) Reducing infant mortality rate
(b) Reducing population growth
(c) Promoting female children education
(d) All of the above
Ans: D

260. Which of the following is not the effect of modern agriculture?
(a) Nitrate pollution
(b) Eutrophication
(c) Biomagnification
(d) Ozone depletion
Ans: D

261. Housing affects:
(a) Neighbourhood
(b) Energy consumption
(c) Water consumption
(d) All of the above
Ans: D

262. The human activity, among the following, which causes maximum environmental pollution having regional and global impacts, is:
(a) Urbanization
(b) Industrialisation
(c) Agriculture
(d) Mining
Ans: B

263. Production, transformation and use of energy are the major problems of:

(a) Industrial activity
(b) Sustainable development
(c) Global warming
(d) Acid rain
Ans: A

264. A chemical industry is not a cause of:
(a) Air pollution
(b) Noise pollution
(c) Water pollution
(d) Nuclear pollution
Ans: D

265. Electronic waste is the adverse effect of:
(a) Industry
(b) Agriculture
(c) Housing
(d) Mining
Ans: A

266. Extraction of mineral and metal form the earth is:
(a) Agriculture
(b) Transportation
(c) Mining
(d) Sustainable development
Ans: C

267. Underground and open caste is the methods of:
(a) Agriculture
(b) Mining
(c) Housing
(d) Transportation
Ans: B

268. This is not the effect of transportation:
(a) Air emission
(b) Material consumption
(c) Solid waste generation
(d) Acid mine drainage
Ans: D

269. In EIA the decision to hold hearing has to made within:
(a) 5 days
(b) 10 days
(c) 20 days
(d) 30 days
Ans: D

270. SPCB's are required to give notice in how many newspapers mentioning the date, time and place of public hearing:
(a) 2
(b) 4
(c) 6
(d) 8
Ans: A

271. 'Meeting the needs of the present without compromising the

ability of future generation to meet their own need' is given by:
(a) Brundtland
(b) Mahatma Gandhi
(c) Maathai
(d) Sunderlal Bahugana
Ans: A

272. The idea of sustainable development was conceived in early:
(a) 1950
(b) 1960
(c) 1970
(d) 1980
Ans: D

273. How many agreement are there in Agenda – 21?
(a) 4
(b) 5
(c) 6
(d) 7
Ans: B

274. Sustainable development will not aim at:
(a) Social economic development which optimise the economic and societal benefits available in the present, without spoiling the likely potential for similar benefits in the future
(b) Reasonable and equitable distributed level of economic well being that can be perpetuated continually
(c) Development that meets the need of the present without compromising the ability of future generation to meet their own needs
(d) Maximising the present day benefits through increased resource consumption
Ans: D

275. Which of the following statements in relation to sustainable development is not true?
(a) Sustainable development is defined as the development that meets the needs of present without compromising the ability of our future generations to meet their own needs
(b) Sustainability has the main objective of purely focussing on the natural environment
(c) Sustainable development of various countries and the entire world is the only solution left with mankind to survive for a longer period on Earth
(d) Sustainable development not only considers the protection of the environment but also the

maintenance of economic viability as well as the social and ethical considerations
Ans: B

276. The maximum number of individuals that can be supported by a given environment is called
(a) Biotic potential
(b) Carrying capacity
(c) Environmental resistance
(d) Population size
Ans: B

277. Supporting capacity and assimilative capacity are the components of
(a) Carrying capacity
(b) Holding capacity
(c) Containing capacity
(d) Capturing capacity
Ans: A

278. Social, economical and ecological equity is the necessary condition for achieving
(a) Social development
(b) Economical development
(c) Sustainable development
(d) Ecological development
Ans: C

279. What type of appeal is more likely to elicit help from a stranger, according to the separate process view?

a. **Trying to make the stranger feel guilty about not helping**
b. **Emphasizing the rewards of helping**
c. **Both A and B**
d. **Neither A nor B**

Answer:
b. Emphasizing the rewards of helping

280. A woman watches as a boy gives some money to a homeless person. The woman subsequently helps another person out of a general feeling of human goodness. Which hypothesis might predict this result?

a. **Social outlook**
b. **Focus of attention**
c. **Mood maintenance**
d. **All of the above**

Answer:
a. Social outlook

281. What is true about people in a cheerful mood?

a. **They initiate fewer interactions**

b. They aggress against others less often
c. They reward themselves more
d. Both B and C

Answer:
d. Both B and C

282. Why might happy people be more helpful?

a. They want to stay in a happy mood
b. They like others more when they are happy
c. They are more optimistic when they are happy
d. All of the above

Answer:
d. All of the above

283. Mood-congruent memory effects are likely to be:

a. Motivated
b. Automatic
c. Controlled
d. All of the above

Answer:
d. All of the above

284. Do negative events tend to be memorable?

a. Mostly they tend not to be as memorable as positive events
b. Yes, for people high in neuroticism
c. Yes, for depressed people
d. All of the above

Answer:
d. All of the above

285. In the context of embodied cognition research, what does "offline cognition" mean?

a. Unobtrusively manipulating facial expressions instead of mood states
b. Recreating perception without the original targets
c. Presenting stimuli in different sensory modalities
d. All of the above

Answer:
b. Recreating perception without the original targets

286. Which of the below is found to be universally disgusting?

a. Vermin
b. Bodily products
c. Death
d. None of the above

Answer:
d. None of the above

287. Which brain area is NOT implicated in the neuroscience of emotion in decision-making?

a. Amygdala
b. vmPFC
c. dlPFC
d. None of the above

Answer:
d. None of the above

288. Research on the effects of mood on persuasion shows many examples of:

a. Classical conditioning
b. Cognitive processes
c. Automatic processes
d. All of the above

Answer:
d. All of the above

289. How can mood influence attitudes toward an argument?

a. As an incidental cue
b. As an influence on how the information is processed
c. As an influence on the amount of information processed
d. All of the above

Answer:
d. All of the above

290. What kind of studies can support the idea that happiness causes success?

a. Cross-sectional designs
b. Longitudinal designs
c. Both A and B
d. Neither A nor B

Answer:
b. Longitudinal designs

291. What types of stimuli are typically liked more after repeated presentation?

a. Paintings
b. Drawings
c. Photographs
d. All of the above

Answer:
c. Photographs

292. Social judgments are often_____ social memory.

a. Correlated with
b. Uncorrelated with
c. Based on
d. Cues for

Answer:
b. Uncorrelated with

293. This chapter is titled "From Affect to Social Cognition." What aspect of affect is particularly

discussed regarding its influence on cognition? a. Preference.
b. Emotion.
C. Evaluation.
d. Mood.
Answer: B

294. According to research on moods and helping, those in a positive mood will be encouraged to help others when _____ is/are salient. Those in negative moods will be encouraged to help others when _____ is/are salient.
a. Rewards, guilt.
b. Guilt, rewards.
c. Other's good fortunes, one's own good fortunes.
d. Both A and C.
Answer: A

295. Which of the following types of moods have been shown to most often facilitate helping behavior?
a. Negative moods, likely because people will turn to helping behavior to make themselves feel better.
b. Positive moods, likely because people want to maintain their positive mood by helping others.
c. Neutral moods, likely because people are more attuned to the needs of others.
d. All of the above.
Answer: D

296. Which of the following best describes objective self-awareness?
a. People recalling positive material in positive moods and sometimes recalling negative material in negative moods.
b. The experience of the self as the target of other's perceptions, often experiencing the self as failing to live up to ideal standards.
c. One's understanding of who one should be.
d. People coping with threats to their self-worth by endorsing other, unrelated aspects of themselves, thereby addressing self-enhancement needs.
Answer: B

297. Tammy's father taught her the chords to his favorite feel-good song when she was in a bad mood one day. The next day, he asks her to play the song, and Tammy, who is still in a bad mood, cannot remember the chords. Her dad, a social psychologist, assures her that she will remember the chords when she is in a good mood. Her father's

assumption aligns with which concept?
a. Mood state-dependent memory.
b. Mood-congruent memory.
c. The fundamental attribution error.
d. Negative state-relief hypothesis.
Answer: B

298. Which of the following demonstrates the mood manipulation in the Velten procedure?
a. Hypnosis.
b. Assuming positive or negative facial expressions.
c. Reading mood-relevant sentences.
d. Listening to mood-laden music.
Answer: C

299. In the affect infusion model, affect has little or no influence on which of the following processing modes?
a. Processing with direct access to prior judgment.
b. Substantive processing.
c. Motivated processing.
d. Both A and C.
Answer: D

300. Which of the following groups reliably demonstrates negative mood congruence?
a. Cheerful people.
b. Depressed people.
c. Extraverts.
d. All of the above.
Answer: B

301. Anna taught Joshua how to draw a horse one day when Joshua was sad. A few days later, Joshua can't recall how to recreate the drawing, but Anna suspects that the next time he is feeling sad, Josh will remember how to draw a horse. Anna's idea exemplifies which of the following memory phenomena:
a. Mood state-dependent memory.
b. Mood-congruent memory.
c. The fundamental attribution error.
d. Negative state-relief hypothesis.
Answer: A

302. Mood affects judgment, but even a person in a good mood will not have overly positive judgments:
a. Of unattractive people.
b. Of criminals.
c. When they are highly involved in a situation.
d. All of the above.
Answer: D

303. Which of the following offers an example of how negative mood affects judgment?
a. People judge others according to positive applicable traits more when in a negative mood.
b. Negative moods increase the perceived likelihood of future negative events.
c. A negative mood can lead people to perceive themselves as having greater social support than they actually have.
d. All of the above.
Answer: B

304. Which of the following emotions involves an approach orientation, optimism, risk seeking, relatively pleasant judgments when appraising the future, and a facilitation of automatic prejudices?
a. Anger.
b. Disgust.
c. Fear.
d. Sadness.
Answer: A

305. Research shows that for people high in _____, disgust leads to more severe moral judgments.
a. Intuition.
b. Private body consciousness (PBC).
c. Offline cognition.
d. Experimental demand.
Answer: B

306. The effects of mood on judgment are more reliably observed in adults than in children,
a. True.
b. False.
Answer: A

307. What is an illusory correlation?
a. Simulations that increase the perceived likelihood of a potential outcome.
b. Simulations that reduce the perceived likelihood of a potential outcome.
c. Expecting a relationship between two variables when none actually exists.
d. The statistical fact that extreme events will, on average, be less extreme when reassessed later.
Answer: C

308. Activation of which of the following brain areas is implicated with emotional-bodily states during decision-making activities (perhaps what we call "gut feelings")?
a. The amygdala.

b. The insula.
c. The cerebellum.
d. The hippocampus.
Answer: B

309. What is a key factor described in the text that influences individual differences in emotional reactivity?
a. Early life experiences.
b. Later life experiences.
c. Current friendships.
d. All of the above.
Answer: A

310. Mood affects decision-making. According to research presented in the chapter, those in a positive mood are more likely to:
a. Focus on details, neglecting the big picture.
b. Correct their stereotypes when unmotivated.
c. Take more risks if the possible losses are small.
d. Both B and C.
Answer: C

311. Which of the following is most likely to facilitate creative thinking and rapid decision-making?
a. Positive mood.
b. Anger.
c. Moral intuitions.
d. Negative mood.
Answer: A

312. What does the affect-as-information approach posit?
a. People sometimes demonstrate emotional responses to a person who resembles a significant other.
b. Affective valence tells the self how it should evaluate a stimulus, even when the affect has an irrelevant source.
c. One can fit a specific occasion, instance, or behavior to a more general prior concept.
d. People attempt to identify what factors give rise to what outcomes by inferring other people's dispositions and mental states from their behavior and its causes.
Answer: B

313. Troy is sitting outside of the library and sees Sam on his scooter far away near the next building. When Sam falls off his scooter, Troy thinks, "Sam is so clumsy, poor guy." But Troy doesn't realize that Sam hit a huge, indiscernible crack in the sidewalk, causing him to fall. Troy's thinking exemplifies:
a. The false consensus effect.
b. Affective transference.

c. The negative state-relief hypothesis.
d. The fundamental attribution error.
Answer: D

314. Mood's effect on persuasion varies depending on levels of the individual's:
a. Involvement.
b. Cognitive activity.
c. Entitativity.
d. Both A and B.
Answer: D

315. Which scholar proposed the separate-systems view of affect and cognition?
a. Joseph P. Forgas.
b. Klaus Fiedler.
c. Robert B. Zajonc.
d. Alice M. Isen.
Answer: C

316. Which of the following supports the separate-systems view?
a. The mere exposure effect.
b. People can know how they feel about an object before they can recognize it.
c. Affective judgments are difficult to verbalize.
d. All of the above.
Answer: D

317. For which of the following does the mere exposure effect NOT occur reliably?
a. Meaningful words.
b. Drawings.
c. Polygons.
d. Photographs.
Answer: B

318. The mere exposure effect is stronger for supraliminal than for subliminal presentation.
a. True.
b. False.
Answer: B

319. An argument for the cognitive underpinnings of the mere exposure effect offers the mechanism of:
a. Schema activation.
b. Affective judgments.
c. Evaluative content.
d. All of the above.
Answer: A

320. One theory described in the text proposed two meanings of cognition: cognition1 _____, and cognition2 _____.

a. Refers to heuristic processing, refers to substantive processing.
b. Involves all mental activity, is intellective knowledge acquisition.
c. Is intellective knowledge acquisition, involves all mental activity.
d. Is intellective knowledge acquisition, refers to heuristic processing.
Answer: C

321. Agricultural activity such as tilling, harvesting, heating and ventilation are direct consumes of:
(a) Energy
(b) Air
c) Sun
(d) Heat
Ans: A

322. Compared to fear, anger makes people feel _____ about the future.

a. **Optimistic**
b. **Neutral**
c. **Risk-averse**
d. **Pessimistic**

Answer:
a. Optimistic